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ABSTRACT

This booklet is a collection of abstracts, literature reviews, and reports on experiments in the communication field. Ninety abstracts from speech communication literature (1970-1977) are presented under the following categories: communication theory, research methodology, interpersonal communication, rhetorical theory and criticism, persuasion, organizational communication, pedagogy, and miscellany. Four reviews of research papers (1970-1977) concern small-group decision making, focus and evaluation in the interpersonal communication course, research in self-concept and its measurement, and symbolic interactionism. The four reports on experiments in education discuss self-disclosure and trust, attitude change as a condition of emotional appeals, conformity within small groups, and communication patterns in small groups. (RL)

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Contemporary Theories of Oral Communication: A Collection of Abstracts, Critical Literature Reviews, And Experiments in the Study of Communication

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Introduction

The study of communication is made difficult by the diversity of topics often identified within the scope of the term communication. Practioners, at least as represented by the professional field of speech communication do little to focus, narrow, or delimit the problem of studying communication. The literature not only remains diverse, but is expanding both in quantity of sublications and variety of topics addressed.

This manuscript represents the results of an ambitious attempt to introduce first year graduate students to the field of speech communication as represented by the manuscripts published in the leading professional journals. In part, this assignment developed from the charge made to the field by the participants in the 1968 New Orleans' Conference on Research and Instructional Development sponsored by the Speech Association of America. In this fortieth recommendation, they challenged that "a graduate student in speech-communication be introduced to the following areas by the end of his first year of graduate study: (a) contemporary communication theories and research, (b) research methods, (c) philosophy of science, (d) history and development of rhetorical theory, and (e) language structure and meaning."

Eight students enrolled in an eight-week summer course at Wichita State University set as their goal to: (a) survey the most significant literature published by the professionals in the field of speech communication; (b) critically appraise research within subareas of the field; (c) conduct an experimental test of a relevant research question often posed within the field; and (d) to identify, analyze, and synthesize as much as they could about the discipline of speech communication. Part of the results are reflected in this manuscript.

The first section includes abstracts from ninety articles appearing in the nine leading communication journals beginning in 1970. The closing period for each journal varied according to the published issue available at the time of the project. Listed below are the journals and the last issue searched during this review:

Central States Speech Journal,	Spring, 1977.
Communication Education,	March, 1977.
Communication Monographs,	March, 1977.
Communication Quarterly,	Winter, 1977.
Human Communication Research,	Spring, 1977.
Journal of Communication,	Spring, 1977.
Quarterly Journal of Speech,	April, 1977.
Southern Speech Communication Journal,	Summer, 1977.
Western Speech Journal,	Winter, 1977.

The bibliography was developed first as a representative list of the diverse subject matter in the field of speech communication. From this list, only the best published material was retained for the final bibliography. The reader will also discover that the literature reflects the truly dynamic character of the field. Many articles pursue or criticize the ideas, hypotheses, or arguments of their predecessors. Often the abstracts capture these moments of debate within the field.

The abstracts are organized by general categories. The following list includes the categorical titles used in the bibliography:

Communication Theory	(17)
Research Methodology	(13)
Interpersonal Communication	(15)
Rhetorical Theory and Criticism	(16)
Persuasion	(8)
Organizational Communication	(7)
Pedagogy	(6)
Potpourri	(8)

Following the abstracts are four critical reviews of literature and four reports of experiments conducted by students in the class. In the case of both assignments, students experienced for the first time a search, analysis, and attempt at synthesis of a complex body of literature. With the experiments, the student discovered for the first time the excitement of an emperical mystery as well as the typical frustrations and perplexities of conducting credible hypothesis testing. In the latter assignment, students were aided by the models provided in R. Wayne Pace, Robert Boren, and Brent Peterson's, Communication Behavior and Experiments: A Scientific Approach (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1975).

Special and grateful thanks are extended to the secretarial staff of the Department of Speech Communication who typed all of the material in its final form: Mary Lin Carter, Kathy Ashpole, Susan Mueller, and especially Cheryl Williams.

Abstracts From The Speech Communication

Literature: 1970-1977

Communication Theory

This collection of abstracts begins appropriately with Frank Dance's 1970 caution that our approach to the study of communication leads us in widely divergent directions while we wrongly claim we are pursuing the same phenomenon. Yet, as the next nine abstracts in this section demonstrate, caution is often thrown to the wind.

The remaining articles give attention to a range of topics from sex to silence with a final article listing the books every well-read communication scholar will have experienced.

This collection helps introduce the novice to our field to the basic and enduring issues as well as diverse topics pursued under the category of communication theory.

Frank E. X. Dance, "The Concept of Communication."
Leonard Hawes, "Elements of a Model for Communication Processes."
Lawrence Grossberg and Daniel J. O'Keefe, "Presuppositions, Conceptual Foundations, and Communication Theory: On Hawes' Approach to Communication."
Dennis R. Smith, "The Fallacy of the Communication Breakdown."
Richard Johannesen, "The Emerging Concept of Communication as Dialogue."
Roderick P. Hart and Don M. Burks, "Rhetorical Sensitivity and Social Interaction."
Daniel O"Keefe, "Logical Empiricism and the Study of Human Communication."
Jesse G. Delia, "Constructivism and the Study of Human Communication."
Dennis R. Smith, "Mechanical and Systemic Concepts of Feedback."
Stephen W. Littlejohn, "Symbolic Interactionism as an Approach to the Study of Human Communication."
John Stewart, "Concepts of Language and Meaning: A Comparative Study."
Dennis S. Gouran, "Group Communication: Perspectives and Priorities for Future Research."
Sandra Purnell, "Sex Roles in Communication: Teaching and Research."
Randall P. Harrison, Akiba A. Cohen, Wayne W. Crouch, B.K.L. Genova, and Mark Steinberg, "The Nonverbal Communication Literature."
Thomas J. Bruneau, "Communicative Silences: Forms and Functions."
Richard L. Johannesen, "The Function of Silence: A Plea For Communication Research."
Gerald Miller, "Readings in Communication Theory: Suggestions and an Occasional Caveat."

"The 'Concept' of Communication"
Frank E. X. Dance
The Journal of Communication, 20(1970), 201-210.

In order to produce, or at least approach, a satisfactory, systematic theory of communication, the initial concept must be clear and reasonably uniform. A concept determines the behavioral field observed, which affects the principles derived, which affect the hypotheses generated, which affect the laws and the systems of laws stated, which, all together, comprise the theory, each in turn. The concept of communication will directly affect the theory which one later derives. One way to assess the usefulness of a concept is to see if there are instances which contradict it. This seems to be the case in some published concepts of communication.

Ninety-five published definitions of communication were drawn from diverse sources and subjected to a content analysis for their main themes. Out of this analysis emerged 15 conceptual components of communication: (1) symbols/verbal/speech, (2) understanding, (3) interaction/relationship/social process, (4) reduction of uncertainty, (5) process, (6) transfer/transmission/interchange, (7) linking/binding, (8) commonality, (9) channel/carrier/means/route, (10) replicating memories, (11) discriminative response/behavior modifying/response/change, (12) stimuli, (13) intentional, (14) time/situation, and (15) power. Among these components, there are three upon which the definitions critically divide: (1) the level of observation; (2) the presence or absence of intent on the part of the sender; and (3) the normative judgment of the act.

The level of observation serves to expand or limit our focus for theory construction. The concept of intentionality reduces the behavioral field and alters a theory's range and power. The component of normative judgment can be even more restrictive. These three components of the concept of communication demonstrate the marked diversity of definitions available.

Since a concept must be defined to have meaning, the broad range of definitions discussed here shows the looseness of the concept of communication as reflected in the looseness of the fields identified with its study. Perhaps a more useful tool would be the creation of a family of concepts. The identification of such families should facilitate the treatment of communication in a systems fashion. Eventually, this process could lead to the goal of a better theory of communication.

Most valuable in an article such as this one is the focus upon starting at the beginning by defining our most basic term: communication. As is shown, a great diversity exists, leading to greatly diverse theories. The reader cannot help but be made more aware, not only of the variety of definitions available, but of the implications of these varieties for research and study. In particular, the reader will have impressed upon him the need to discover the definitions a writer is using in order to more thoroughly understand his conclusions.

David A. Bullock

"Elements of a Model for Communication Processes"
Leonard C. Hawes
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 59(1973), 11-21

This paper provided a rationale for and outline of a theory that focuses on the process nature of communication. The outline was constructed as a formal model for the theory.

It was suggested that behaviors and meanings need not be studied separately. To reflect this relationship of meanings and behaviors, communication was defined a patterned space-time behavior with a symbolic referent. A formal model was developed to explicate this definition. The model consisted of three major postulates: the postulate of concatenaity, the postulate of simultaneity, and the postulate of functionality.

The first postulate stated that communication is a spatio-temporal series of interconnected things or events. This postulate was interpreted to mean that each communication act affects and is affected by the entire stream of communicative acts. The theorem derived from this postulate stated that if communication is a series of concatenous acts, the communication interact is the fundamental unit of analysis in the study of communication.

It was also postulated that communication is a process phenomenon simultaneously involving two or more symbol-using animals. The theorem derived from this postulate stated that if communication involves two or more symbol users simultaneously, communication will operate on two dimensions simultaneously: content and relationship. This theorem suggested that communication not only transmits information, but defines the relationship binding the symbol users.

The postulate of functionality stated that communication functions to create and validate symbol systems which define social reality and regulate social action. Four theorems based on this postulate were presented: 1) if the function of a symbol is to be determined, the relationship binding the symbol users must be defined; 2) all communication interacts conceal, repeat or disclose information about the relationships among symbol users; 3) if functionality is to be preserved during empirical assessment, relationships must be thought of systematically; and 4) the less entropy in the relationship, the greater the ease with which symbol systems can be enacted. In short, when entropy is reduced in a relationship, the easier it is for symbol users to interlock their communication acts in mutually-expected ways.

Finally, it was suggested that process research may allow the study of human behavior that cannot be explained by either direct or indirect causality. It was argued that in the model, the cause of behavior lies in the communication patterns which constitute the motives of human activity.

Hawes' article provides a formal delineation of communication theories. The interactive, on-going process nature of communication is emphasized and presented in a verbal description model. One of the most significant aspects of the model is that it places communication behavior in its space-time context.

Donna Jensen

"Presuppositions, Conceptual Foundations, and Communication Theory: On Hawes' Approach to Communication"
Lawrence Grossberg and Daniel J. O'Keefe
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 61(1975), 195-208.

It is becoming increasingly evident to social scientists that one's underlying assumptions affect one's theoretical and methodological formulations. The importance of the authors' argument is that communication theorists must recognize the central importance of philosophical issues and assumptions in the formulation of communication theories; without such recognition, attempts to provide clear and consistent conceptual foundations for research programs will prove futile. The authors show this importance though a critical examination of Leonard Hawes' recent theoretical formulation. Hawes locates his view in the "conceptual overlap" between two philosophers, Alfred Schutz and May Brodbeck.

The question of the nature of meaning in human affairs has long been addressed by both philosophers and social scientists. One twentieth-century philosophical forum in which this topic arises is that of "action theory." The issues discussed in action theory underlie many disputes between different theoretical formulations in social science, especially those grounded in a fundamental philosophical disagreement over the nature of human behavior: whether human action is reducible to mere physical movement. One might construe all human behavior as nothing but physical movement. On this view, all sentences of psychology describe physical occurrences. Contrary to this viewpoint, one might argue for a distinction between persons as physical organisms and persons as agents, beings who can act and who have intentions, motives, reasons, desires, and so forth.

Opposed to this view are authors such as Alfred Schutz. Three points are in order. First, Schutz's conception of human action. Action is distinguished from behavior on the basis of the former's meaningfulness. The meaning of an action is its corresponding projected act. Action is thus intriniscally subjective. Secondly, in addressing the topic of the role of motivation in action, Schutz distinguishes two types of motives. The "in-order-to" motive represents the project of which the action is to be the fulfillment. The "because" motive represents those prior conditions which from the actor's view determined the character of the project. Both types of motive thus exist within the subjective meaning context of the actor. Thirdly, in building a link between his analysis of human action and an understanding of the methodology appropriate to the human sciences, Schutz holds to Max Weber's postulate of subjective understanding. For both Weber and Schutz, the aim of the social sciences is to find some way of describing and understanding the purely subjective meaning of human action. The question at hand is whether the observer's meaning (the objective meaning-context) can perfectly coincide with the actor's meaning (the subjective meaning-context).

Hawes asserts that the foundations of his approach to communication lie in "the conceptual overlap" between Schutz and Broadbeck. At the very least, Hawes has not presented such a synthesis, for the authors argue that Hawes finds a compatibility between the two perspectives only

by virtue of his inadequate understanding, and correlative misconstrual, of the point of view Schutz represents; such misinterpretaion, of course, obviates the possibility of a genuine synthesis.

This can be clearly shown by considering three reasons for believing that Hawes' foundations cannot be found in the views of Alfred Schutz. First, Hawes and Schutz differ over the nature and aims of science in general and social science in particular. The view of the scientific enterprise that predominates in the social sciences envisions the social scientist as seeking to explain, predict, and control human behavior. Hawes' adoption of this general perspective is evidenced in his concern with casual explanations and in his statement that the goals of the social sciences are to explain, predict, and control human behavior. Schutz's view is that every social science sets as its primary goal the greatest possible clarification of what is thought about the social world by those living in it. The task of the human scientist is to understand the actor's meanings for his world and his actions, and the processes by which these meanings are constructed and negotiated. The second point of divergence between Hawes and Schutz is given in their differing views on the object of social investigation. For Hawes, the relationship, not the individual symbol user, is the ultimate object of investigation. While Schutz would agree that individuals interact, his central focus would not be a reified relationship, but rather the perspectives of the individuals involved. Thirdly, Hawes and Schutz differ over the way in which the social scientist ought to approach his objects. Schutz emphasizes that the social scientist, when constructing his objective meaning-contexts, must always keep his primary goal in mind: that of discerning the subjective meaning-context of the actor. But Schutz makes it quite clear that the social scientist cannot blithely assume that his objective meaning-context faithfully represents the actor's perspective; the relation of the two is always problematic. Hawes, however, ignores the question of to what degree the two coincide.

Thus it appears that Hawes' view are grounded in a logical empiricist philosophy of science and a behavioristic approach to human action. These two commitments define the perspective from which Hawes attempts to interpret Schutz. Hawes failes to recognize that the point of view Schutz exemplifies is premised on a denial of those two presuppositions. Because of the failure to recognize that denial, Hawes' theory cannot be taken to be a genuine synthesis of the divergent points of view that Schutz and other represent.

The conceptual foundations of Leonard Hawes' approach to communication are critically examined in this article. The article states that communication theorists must be well acquainted with the philosophical issues that underlie social science. Communication theorists are to make their own presuppositions clear, and if they are to construct conceptually grounded methodologies, then these philosophical concerns must be explicity acknowledged.

Brenda J. Webb

"The Fallacy of the Communication Breakdown"
Dennis R. Smith
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 56(1970), 343-346.

What we observe is a product of the philosophy with which we make our observations. The study of communication is currently beset with problems that arise from a transition in philosophy in which the language used to record observations does not adequately describe either reality or the philosophy of the observer.

For a period of about fifteen years, communication theory was highly influenced by the engineering sciences. The communication process was observed and described in language compatible with the philosophical constructs of engineering. The concepts of information, entropy, sender, message, receiver, noise, and channels reflect the outlook of the engineering sciences. Because the terms are drawn from engineering, they direct the user to look at communication as a linear, directional, mechanical event. The danger in using such terms is that the user may not be fully aware of the philosophical consequence of his language.

An excellent example of a term bringing to our observations philosophical implications that are not consonant with the view of communication as a process is the currently popular term "communication breakdown." This term, perhaps more than any other, reflects a view of communication as a directional, linear event that may break down. The very word breakdown implies a disruption or a malfunctioning of an element or part of a mechanical system. To correct a communication breakdown one either repairs the system or replaces one of its parts.

The author states that while the term communication breakdown has been useful in popularizing a communication-oriented approach to the study of speech in the classroom, the term is highly misleading. Smith in this article takes a closer look at the implications of the term, and its fallacies.

The term communication breakdown embodies a concept of communication as linear, i.e., the breakdown occurs between two elements of a linear system. Thus, one who attempts to observe a communication breakdown would attempt to observe a linear system in which the breakdown could occur. Such a view is not consistent with the view of communication as a process.

The words communication breakdown suggest a mechanical model incongruous with human communication. It is easy to conceive of a mechanical system breaking down, but one does not think of a biological phenomenon breaking down. The situation faced by students of communication today is much the situation faced by psychologists and psychiatrists of several years ago. When people became mentally ill, they had a nervous breakdown. There is a profound difference between treating a patient for a nervous breakdown and treating his pathological behavior. The same situation would seem to apply to a communicologist who wishes to deal with problems or pathologies in human communication. The communicologist should avoid the fallacy of the communication breakdown and focus his attention on the communication process and pathologies in communication.

Perhaps the greatest fallacy of the term communication breakdown is the fallacy of noncommunication. The term breakdown implies an absence of communication. Thus, the student of communication frequently assumes that in a communication breakdown, communication is not occurring. This is a dangerous misconception. As Waltzlawick has pointed out, we cannot not communicate. Even the absence of communication communicates. If we view the reaction as communication rather than as a breakdown in communication, we change the nature of the observations we make regarding the situation.

This brings us to a fourth fallacy in the use of the term communication breakdown. Students who approach the communication process in terms of breakdown tend to look for a "thing", a breakdown, rather than to observe the various dimensions of the communication process. When they approach communication looking for breakdowns, they seek something they can tinker with or an obstacle they can remove to get communication going again. The very language involved in such an analysis prevents them from viewing communication as an ongoing process.

There are at least two alternatives to the analysis of communication breakdowns. One is simply to view certain types of communication patterns as pathologies of the communication process. The concept of pathological activity in the communication process does not carry with it the fallacies engendered in the concept of a breakdown. A second alternative should be given consideration. Communication may be viewed as a biological dimension of social integration. All biological organisms become social organisms through the process of communication. So conceived, communication as an integrative function may be said to have two dimensions: that dimension which directly facilitates social integration and that dimension which inhibits social integration.

The article tells the individual why the term "communication breakdown" is misleading. It is a short article, but nonetheless a good introductory to the implications of the term and its fallacies of linearity, mechanism, noncommunication, and reification.

Brenda J. Webb

"The Emerging Concept of Communication as Dialogue"
Richard Johannesen
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 57(1971), 373-382

This article provides the groundwork for further investigation of communication as dialogue. Three areas of this concept are examined. The first is a look at the components of the concept of dialogue, the second is to review the nature of monologue according to the dialogue advocated, and the third raises some questions and issues concerning dialogue while carrying out communication research.

Martin Buber, author of I Thou and Between Man and Man, placed the concept of dialogue at the center of his view of human communication and existence. According to Buber interaction between men promotes development of personality and knowledge. Dialogue is more of an attitude, principal or orientation concerning communication than a method, technique or format. The attitude and behavior of each participant is characterized by qualities such as honesty, spontaneity and intensity. In dialogue each person is accepted for what he is, there is no attempt to impose the speaker's views on the other person, although understanding is desired. Each person attempts to become totally aware of the other person. The basic element is "seeing the other or experiencing the other" while not giving up one's own convictions. Rogers uses this approach in his client-centered psychotherapy. The characteristics of dialogue or its components that all scholars agree upon are: a genuiness, direct, honest straightforwardness; and accurate empathic understanding, (things are seen from the other viewpoint as well as your own, feelings should be accurately reflected and clarified); unconditional positive reward, not just being tolerated, (there is mutual trust even if one person does not approve of the other's behavior); a presentness exixts in which each person is involved in the dialogue, not merely a distanced onlooker; there is a spirit of mutual equality because no one is more powerful or superior to the other one; and finally, there exists a supportive psychological climate which encourages the other to communicate and to listen to what is said. Men associated with dialogue are: Karl Jaspers, Gabriel Marcel, Reuel Howe, author of The Miracle of Dialogue, George Gusdorf, Floyd Matson, Ashely Montagu, and psychiatrists and psychologists Carl Rogers, Joost Meerloo, Eric Fromm, Paul Tournier and Jack Gibb.

Many of these men feel monologue is inherently evil because it is manifest in propoganda and is characterized by coercion, self-centeredness commands, manipulation, exploitation and deception. It is directed toward the end of power over another to gain profit or enjoyment. The concern in monologue is one's own prestige and authority. Many of these previously mentioned men feel that monologue takes place during a conversation, friendly chat or a lover's talk. The purpose of monologue is to gain consensus with the speaker's view point and is lacking in mutual trust. However, dialogue and monologue should not be viewed as opposites, but as extremes on a continuum. Monologue can not be equated with persuasion and propoganda because monologue is only an aspect of each, not totally either.

The issues for researching dialogue are numerous. Can dialogue be subjected to empirical research? Buber believes that it can. Will the process and techniques of this research and objective observation destroy

dialogue's atmosphere? Kenneth Williams advocates the use of such things as one-way mirrors, tape recorders and content analysis to study dialogue. Barrett and Lennard report the use of "Relationship Inventory" to measure basic attitudinal qualities necessary for effective therapeutic relationships. Traux and Carkhuff use a "Depth of Self-Exploration Scale" to access preception of the encounter. Can dialogue be taught? Giffin and Patton attempt to instruct dialogue techniques in their interpersonal communication writings. Paul Keller and Charles T. Brown feel the prime concern in studying dialogue should be the needs of the participants rather than ideal truths. The attitudes are more important than the messages. Their questions concerning dialogue are: How does the sender react to the receiver's reaction? Can the sender accept negative reaction?

Obviously the study of dialogue is still an important area of needed research. Even though dialogue has many different meanings to different people the agreed upon areas concerning dialogue are that it is a face-to-face encounter, having two people communicating orally and extending over a period of time.

The reader will find in this article a discussion of the concept of what dialogue is and some of the areas still needing to be researched. Also included is a bibliography giving the works of the author's cited. Finally anyone who wants to research dialogue should begin with this article since it lays the groundwork as to what is known and understood about dialogue and some of the questions concerning dialogue which remain unanswered, along with the possible methods for study and anticipated problems which would give the researcher an added edge.

Carla Deckert

"Rhetorical Sensitivity and Social Interaction"
Roderick P. Hart and Don M. Burks
Speech Monographs, 39(1972), 75-91.

Risking oversimplification, contemporary attitudes toward communication may be placed into one of two camps: expressive and instrumental. It is difficult, if not impossible, to present fully the myriad of dictates urged upon the student by today's advocates of the "expressive communication". However, in Richard Johannesen's article entitled "The Emerging Concept of Communication as a Dialogue", we may find an insight into the basic tenents of expressive communication. "Mutuality, open-heartedness, directness, honesty, spontaneity, frankness, nonmanipulative intent, and love in the sense of responsibility of one human for another" are all definitions-by-synonym-and imagery which populate today's expressive communication literature. However, "doing what comes naturally" may not always be the most universally appropriate criterion for communication. Because there may be the desire to maintain interpersonal relationships, there is the need to go beyond the egocentric self and acquire a pragmatic rhetorical perspective and ability.

Because social interactants are multifaceted, the rhetorically sensitive person tries to accept role-taking as part of the human condition. This is not to say that a person should take on one inflexible role, but that the communicant realize that he or she is a collection of roles learned through life and that they should be able and ready to take on one of those roles at appropriate instances. Rhetorical training can be looked at as an attempt to demonstrate how the communicator can effectively utilize roles in a way that is productive.

Carl Rogers makes the point of the psychotheraputic experience being one in which patients ask "Who am I, really?". While such a unitary conception of the self may be highly appropriate to therapy situations and to those who need a single answer to rebuild a shattered personality, it is questionable that this type of question is applicable to the communicator who is not only mentally healthy, but also is subject to many human interfaces. It is this healthy and complex communicator with whom the teacher or professor deals, that needs the rhetorical training which the teacher or professor is can provide.

This particular article is one of the most to-the-point replies to the avant garde transactionalists. Its sixteen pages may be of great interest to the more traditional minded communication student. Very worthwhile.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

"Logical Empiricism and the Study of Human Communication"
Daniel O'Keefe
Speech Monographs, 42(1975), 169-183.

The logical empiricist conception of the scientific enterprise has long dominated communication theory and research. This essay sketches the logical empiricist view and note its dominance in the study of human communication, explores some of the criticisms leveled at that view, and discusses some implications of those objections for communication studies.

"Logical empiricism" (sometimes called "logical positivism") is thusly named because it stands at the confluence of two streams of philosophical work: a refurbished Humean empiricism and new developments in symbolic logic at the turn of the twentieth century. O'Keefe states that where Hume drew a distinction between "impressions" and "ideas", contemporary empiricists distinguish observation statements and theoretical statements. Observation statements are straightforward and uncontroversial; they are factual, theory-free descriptions which form the foundations of scientific knowledge. Sharply distinguished from observation statements are theoretical statements; these are problematic, and questionable if not tied to observations.

The theoretical language of science is connected to the observational language by means of "operational definitions." The operational definition of a theoretical statement specifies in observational statements the meaning of the theoretical statement. From the positivistic view, theoretical concepts must, if they are to meaningfully apply to the world, have operational definitions. These definitions, which tie theoretical concepts to the common observation language, guarantee (i) the comparison of two theories that have different theoretical concepts and (ii) the meaningfulness of theoretical discourse.

The logical empiricist conception of the scientific enterprise has been subjected to severe criticism. One area of criticism is the nature of the connection between theoretical and observational discourse. A second area of criticism of the positivistic approach focuses on the nature of verification and falsification in the scientific process. A third topic of criticism in the logical empiricist program is the theoretical-observational distinction. The argument here is that observations are inherently "theory-laden," that "facts" are not facts independent of a theoretical framework, and thus that there is no theory-independent observation language. According to O'Keefe, of all the lines of attack on the positivistic view considered in his essay, this is the most important, for it strikes at the heart of the logical empiricist program: at the assumption that there is a special observational vocabulary which is suitable for all scientific theories, which is neutral with respect to the claims of competing theories, and which forms the foundations upon which scientific knowledge can be erected. A fourth area of criticism focuses on the requirement that psychological discourse be translatable into physicalistic discourse. This criticism centers more directly on the applicability of the positivistic view to the realm of human phenomena.

In the last section, focus is shifted to communication studies and to the way the difficulties with the logical empiricist philosophy of science reflect on the conduct of communication theory and research. The

first implication the author sees issuing from the criticisms of the logical empiricist view is: maximally productive research involves the systematic extension, elaboration, and defense of a theoretical framework. O'Keefe believes that as long as one holds the positivistic view that observations are theory-free, one can afford to go about randomly doing whatever experimental study comes to mind. But when it is recognized that there is no theory-free observation language and that research findings have significance only within a larger theoretical framework, then the character of the research enterprise will be seen to change. The author strongly emphasizes that theory and research must be seen as much more closely tied.

There is a second implication that the author draws from the criticism of the received view: theoretical and conceptual analysis should be recognized as a productive, even necessary, element in the achievement of a satisfactory theoretical account. Communication researchers have long operated with the implicit presupposition that theoretical statements are meaningful apart from operational definitions. But if theoretical claims are meaningful apart from operational definitions, then purely theoretical discussions are justifiable. If such discussions are to be possible, theoretical frameworks must be publicly formulated and hence open to critical public scrutiny. The more important facet here is the critical public scrutiny. The author states that it is just this careful, reflective conceptual analysis that communication theory typically lacks.

I recommend this essay to the individual who needs a concise view of the logical empiricist conception of the scientific enterprise. It not only gives a concise view but also tells why this view is now under attack and is being abandoned by most philosophers of science. The essay examines those criticisms and discusses some implications of those objections for communication studies.

Brenda J. Webb

"Constructivism and the Study of Human Communication"
Jesse G. Delia
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 68(1977), 66-83.

The philosophy of science explicitly or implicitly accepted by communication theorists and researchers is the positivistic view holding that since the scientific enterprise involves the generation of theory-free facts, scientific knowledge can be represented in a nomological-deductive system. The contemporary version of this view is typically termed "logical empericism".

In the place of a conception of scientific knowledge as constructed upon a bedrock of theory-free observations, several related alternatives have been advanced which, taken together, may be referred to as Weltanschauugen philosophies of science. The most general theories or models, which constitute the basic presuppositional ground of theory development, have been variously labeled as "world hypotheses," "root metaphors," "presuppositions," "forms of life," "paradigms," "ways of seeing the world," "world views." Theories within any specific world view differ in their level of generality, but as the most general level a world view is capable of encompassing every phenomenon and event. That is, it provides a general way of organizing experience.

Any specific theory or concept is embedded within a general world theory constituting its assumptive ground. This is fundamental to the constructivist view. The position acknowledges fully the implication that we must accept a basic skepticism concerning our ability to achieve ultimate and final knowledge of the world. This skepticism is faced with the belief, however, that man progresses in knowledge of the world through the active role of the human construer within social institutions, including science, which he participates in creating. Fundamentally, constructivism thus makes people responsible for their ideas.

For unless this Weltanschauung is apprehended the nature and force of the shifts advocated concerning the conceptualization of communication processes and the conduct of communication research will also be missed. Worlds of interpretation separate those who work within different paradigms. Communication across paradigms requires that we give our best efforts to articulating the full substance of our views. And this mandates a full and critical discussion and evaluation of the assumptive ground of our theories and concepts. All research must be conducted within a matrix of basic assumptions; concepts have meaning only within one or another paradigm precisely because of the conviction that it provides a useful way of proceeding in understanding a particular realm of phenomena.

Within the constructivist world view, progress is seen to come through the extension of the scope and the refinement of the precision in encompassing experience of a world theory and its corollary theories and concepts. Thus for the constructivist the best bet we have for knowing the world is the elaboration of a particular socially fabricated conceptual system giving coherence to experience and transforming observations into knowledge. One's theoretic paradigm makes evident what are important and unimportant problems, what kinds of approaches to particular problems will be productive, and the like. Without holding beginning

assumptions researchers would face only darkness with nothing to illuminate their way. With them they can formulate a theoretical system that can be extended, refined, added to, and supplanted.

The ultimate test of knowledge in the constructivist view is its rational evaluation by the scientific community. Like other shared human endeavors, science is based upon a cultural system developed in a historical context. Our conception of what is rational, in fact, is in large measure a reflection of the historically developed standards of evidence, argument, and procedure distinguishing the scientific way of knowing the world from other ways of knowing it--be they aesthetic, critical, experiential, mystical, religious, or whatever.

The constructivist view commits one to an empirical elaboration of conceptual schemes. As scientists they are committed to the rational enterprise of elaborating and refining their conceptual systems through subjecting them to systematic interaction with the empirical world and to making them critically responsive to empirical evidence. For the constructivist, a single study is relatively unimportant. What is required is sustained, systematic research with the same system of concepts. Ideas must continually have their scope and precision challenged and elaborated.

Finally, the constructivist view explicitly emphasizes the role of the intellectual community as the crucible in which ideas must be tested. Coherent theoretical frameworks, of course, are created only by the hard work of individual researchers elaborating, refining, and defending their entire programs--assumptions, concepts, methods, and all. Some frameworks doubtlessly will fail or be rejected; others will surely win admiration and adherents. But as a community they can achieve progress in the process only by relying upon each other.

This article elaborates to the individual the perspective of constructivism with attention to its implications for conduct of communication research and the development of theoretic understanding of human communication.

Brenda J. Webb

"Mechanical and Systemic Concepts of Feedback"
Dennis R. Smith
Today's Speech, 21(1973), 23-28.

In Introduction to Cybernetics, W. Ross Ashby argued that the various concepts of feedback may essentially be reduced to two. There is a primarily mathematical definition of feedback which aims at establishing a principle behind the operations of mechanisms which exhibit feedback. Another approach defines feedback as existing when some forward effect from P to R can be taken for granted, to the deliberate conduction of some effect back from R to P by some connection that is physically or materially evident. This definition possesses the operational utility that a purely mathematical construct of feedback lacks. For the purpose of distinguishing between the two concepts, the mathematical construct will be called systemic feedback, and the operational construct will be called mechanical feedback.

Feedback is closely related to cybernetics or "communication theory." Norbert Wiener, the creator of cybernetics, viewed communication as a theory of control and the study of communication within the framework of cybernetics as the study of the transmission of messages for the purpose of effecting control. Wiener's analysis of control postulates a collection of functions which are designated as "sender". The sender is a set whose function is the transmission of messages for the purpose of achieving control at some desired point called the receiver. The "receiver" is a set whose function is the receiving of messages. Because the communication theorist is concerned with the problem of control, he focuses his analysis upon the message as received rather than the message as intended. In order for the sender to determine whether or not control was effected at the receiver, there must exist some circularity of response, known as feedback. The characteristic of feedback which informs the sender of the degree to which control was effected is known as information.

Many of the social sciences adopted Wiener's terminology. In so doing, most theorists also adopted the mechanistic understanding of feedback, insisting upon a direct, materially evident connection between the two elements of the system. Consequently, feedback analysis has focused almost exclusively upon the dimension of material response rather than the dimensions of circularity or information equally inherent in the concept of feedback.

Systemic feedback is a more general concept than that of mechanical feedback. Because mechanical feedback embodies a materially evident connection between elements of a system, its usefulness in analyzing complex systems is severely limited. The sheer mathematical complexity of the interrelationships becomes unmanageable in a system with as few as four elements. An alternative is necessary for analysis and description of complex systems such as speech communication when treated as a biological function or an interaction. The concept of circularity of response of feedback refers to the transmission of a message to a receiver. There it stops. Then the transmission of a message in return from the now transmitting receiver. It stops again. In such definition, a linear collection of a series of transmissions and receptions of materially evident messages is substituted for the concept of circularity of response.

In contrast to the mechanical feedback model in which time is represented as a vector segmented between message-response sequences, the systemic model of feedback more closely integrates the relationship as a simultaneity of response. When time is introduced into the model as a vector, the entire relationship becomes represented as a phasestate at discrete time intervales.

An interesting extension of the systemic concept of feedback is proposed by Waltzlawick, Beavin, and Jackson in their analysis of "positive" and "negative" feedback relationships. A positive feedback relationship exists between two elements of a system when the information conveyed in the feedback tends to continue the behavior of the system in the direction in which it is going. A negative feedback relationship exists between two elements of a system when the information in the feedback relationship tends to alter the direction of the behavior of a system. The thermostat on an automatic heater is a common illustration of positive and negative feedback relationships.

Feedback as a relationship is not something which is given and received. When feedback is conceived as a relationship, the focus of analysis moves to information and redundancy. When a feedback relationship exists between a sender and a receiver, no response may still be analyzed in terms of a measurable amount of information conveyed to the sender through the relationship. When we conceive of human interaction as a cybernetic system with implicit feedback relationships, we can well maintain that one cannot not communicate.

This article is recommended to the individual who is interested in the concept feedback. It describes what systemic and mechanical feedback involves plus it provides diagrammatic representation of each. Various implications of the concept are explored including dyadic and small group analysis.

Brenda J. Webb

"Symbolic Interactionism as an Approach
to the Study of Human Communication"
Stephen W. Littlejohn
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 68(1977), 84-91.

The purpose of the article is to survey the basic beliefs of symbolic interactionism and to show the way in which certain leading theorists related to interactionist views. Symbolic interactionism is identified as "one of the broadest overviews of the role of communication in society." Main and Meltzer in their book Symbolic Interaction, identified six basic theoretical propositions or common premises of symbolic interaction: (1) mind, self, and society are processes growing out of interaction; (2) language is the basic means of developing mind and self; (3) the mind is developed by the internal social processes; (4) behavior manifests itself through acting; (5) before acting a person has to identify the situation; and (6) the self consists of social definitions as well as sole definitions. The article is concerned with five proponents of these premises: George Herbert Mead, Herbert Blumer, Manford Kuhn, Kenneth Burke and Hugh Duncan.

Although none of his works were published until 1931, after his death, George Herbert Mead is considered the "father" of symbolic interactionism. Mead was concerned with both the outward acts of man and the covert area of man's actions, and believed that reality existed only through experience. Reality or objects could only be identified by experience or perception.

Herbert Blumer was the first person to coin the term symbolic interactionism. He not only echoed Mead's views, but went on to expand many of the critical areas with which Mead had not been concerned. Blumer became very concerned with the importance of "meaning" or conscious interpretation. He also expanded Mead's theory of group action, i.e. the group cannot be separated from the individual's formation of meaning. Blumer was more concerned with Behavioral science.

Manford Kuhn introduced two new areas of interactionist theory: (1) "operationalize the interactionists concept of self"; and (2) "use of quantitative research". Although Kuhn's theoretical premises were consistent with those of Mead's, Kuhn went far beyond either Mead or Blumer. Kuhn stressed naming of objects and indicated that only upon naming of an object did that object take on meaning. He also stressed the self concept of the individual and said that the individual can only gain frame of reference upon identifying the "self".

Kenneth Burke departed "dramatically" in theory although his views were compatible with the others. Burke viewed the individual as an actor interacting with others. Burke like Erving Goffman, was concerned with the role-behavioral theory. He is outstanding among the symbol theorists, and his theory is the most complete and comprehensive of all the interactionists.

In Symbols and Society, Hugh Duncan summarizes the interactionists movement and lists seventy-one propositions related to man and society. He too regarded the symbol as important, but was more concerned about the social order through communication. Duncan defined communication as

"an attempt to persuade others to a certain course of action that we believe necessary to create a given social order".

Although a little redundant and limited the article does present numerous works in the area which would be of value for further reading in relation to each author presented, plus a few additional authors in the area. The article gives an indication of the vastness of the area of symbolic interactionism and is only an overview.

Jeanette McDaniel

"Concepts of Language and Meaning: A Comparative Study"
John Stewart
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 58(1972), 123-133

Language is a central concern of the speech communication scholar whether he views his task as the study of misunderstanding and its remedies, scientific analysis of spoken symbolic interaction, or contemplation of the mutual struggle for common ground between two distinct and inviolable identities. Presuppositions about language and linguistic meaning can materially affect his theorizing, criticism, and teaching. This article reviews treatments of language and meaning in recent communication literature and outline the approach to these same subjects taken by the ordinary language philosophers Ludwig Wittgenstein, Gilbert Ryle, J.L. Austin, P.R. Strawson, and William P. Alston. It demonstrates that these philosophers conclusions about language and meaning are often significantly different from those reached by speech communication scholars and suggest that knowledge of ordinary language philosophy can be useful to both the rhetorician and the speech communication scientist.

Speech communication scholars almost unanimously agree that language is fundamentally a system of symbols and that a symbol is generally anything that represents something else. Consequently, they contend that language is made up of representational elements which are conventionally agreed upon to represent certain things and to classify things, which direct attention to specific differentiating aspects of the thing they symbolize, and which represent and substitute for objects, events, experiences, and concepts. Most of the writers also agree that to say language is essentially symbolic is to say that words are fundamentally names.

Speech scholars also base their work on three theories of meaning: referential, ideational, and behavioral. Each is a representational theory in that it rests on the assumption that the function of linguistic entities (i.e., words, phrases, sentences), is to represent other "things", and that these other "things" figure prominently in what the entities mean. According the referential approach, linguistic meaning is in the object of which the symbol refers, or in the relationship between symbol and object. The ideational theory of meaning posits that words represent ideas and that the meaning of a word is the idea or conception that the word symbolizes or calls up. The behavioral theory of meaning maintain that the meaning of a symbol is in the behavioral response that it elicits in those who perceive it.

Ordinary language philosophers from one recent trend in what is usually called "analytic" or "linguistic" philosophy. Linguistic philosophy is generally characterized by the view that philosophical problems may be solved or dissolved either by reforming language or by understanding more about the language we presently use. Ordinary language philosophers are identified by the way they take special and systematic account of the role ordinary language plays in the creation and resolution of philosophical problems. Their approach to philosophy is ordinary language in two senses. First, in contrast with the formalized writings of symbolic logicians, ordinary language philosophers discuss logical issues in an informal way, without recourse to special invented languages. Secondly, they believe that a consideration of what we ordinarily say is at least a useful preliminary to the discussion of philosophical problems.

The following four presuppositions characterize the views of language and meaning held by ordinary language philosophers: Language does not naturally and cannot accurately resemble a calculus; ordinary language philosophers argue that, since language is not mathematically consistent, words do not function in any single way (meaning is not simply reference and words are not simple names); ordinary language philosophers not only maintain that generalizations about referring and naming are incorrect, but also contend that virtually all generalizations about language unnecessarily distort its nature; language using is ordinary behavior. According to the ordinary language philosophers, the use of language is not as traditional philosophers represented it. There is no one pattern to be revealed; no single account to be offered, no small set of calculus-like rules. On the contrary, the forms and uses of language are inexhaustible flexible and various; speaking is not like a game, but a whole family of games, and the rules for these games, their purposes, and the methods of play are almost endlessly diverse.

This article, as the title indicates, gives the individual a comparative study of the communication approach and the ordinary language philosophy approach of language and meaning. Each approach is discussed in detail with a primary reference source given for the different theories represented.

Brenda J. Webb

"Group Communication: Perspectives and
Priorities for Future Research"
Dennis S. Gouran
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 59(1973), 22-29

Though much research is going on in the area of small groups, taken as a whole it lacks direction. In an area of such vital use in the life of nearly everyone, it becomes most disconcerting to recognize this fact. As the original interest in small groups awakened with their decision-making activities, so should the concentration of efforts be focused today. This perspective remains particularly desirable when one considers that many of the nation's domestic and foreign difficulties have resulted from failures in decision-making. There are three main categories of variables and relationships among variables in need of investigation. These include group outcomes, communication behaviors, and context of communication.

In the area of group outcomes, there are four concepts in need of high research priority: (1) consensus; (2) effectiveness of a decision; (3) satisfaction with a decision; and (4) cohesiveness. All of these have received substantial and continuing interest. If we limit the outcomes we investigate to these four, we maximize the opportunity for integrating research findings into a meaningful set of generalizations. Particular relationships between these variables which should be investigated include consensus and effectiveness of a decision; and consensus and satisfaction. Research on these variables independently should emphasize the determinants of each as well as the development of each in small groups.

A second area of real need is some intensive basic research aimed at the discovery of stable communication behaviors characterizing the decision-making process. It seems clear that every discussion can be analyzed in terms of its rational, emotional, structural, social, and meta-discussional components. These units, or a similar list, should be studied to identify the dimension of communication behavior in small group decision-making. The attempt will be facilitited by a recognition of the distinction between the functions and properties of the units of communication studied.

A third area which future research must reckon with is the contexts in which decision-making discussions occur. Four contextual variables which seem to be especially important and amenable to investigation include (1) diffusion of power; (2) group composition; (3) pressures for uniformity; and (4) group climate. The study of context and its direct and indirect effects on communication behavior and group outcomes respectively will likely give vitality to much future research.

In terms of the design of the research, three concepts should be considered. First, much more of the research should focus on the contingent and sequential relationships among units of communication. In addition, the relationship of various sequential patterns to such group outcomes as those previously discussed should be investigated. Finally, more of the future studies should be multivariate in design.

The use of this focus could have far-reaching consequences. The productiveness of research in decision-making at the small group level will

be greatly facilitated by following these suggestions. An awareness of the overall needs should serve to channel interest and efforts in the most meaningful directions.

David A. Bullock

"Sex Roles in Communication: Teaching and Research"
Sandra Purnell
Western Journal of Speech Communication, 40(1976), 111-120.

Sexual identity (gender in the sense of biological sex difference) is an eternal, pervasive division among people who habitually seek to communicate with one another. While communication scholars have become interested in race and ethnicity as sources of communication breakdown, we have only recently begun to recognize the more ubiquitous and, perhaps, more subtle impact of sex roles upon communication.

"Sex Roles in Communication" is concerned with two central questions. The first is what are the similarities and differences in the communication patterns of American women and men? And, second, what is the significance of any sex difference in communication? In particular, what does the study of communication patterns reveal about the nature of male-female relations in American society?

The theoretical foundation for the course is derived from symbolic interactionist and phenomenological approaches to communication. Four fundamental principles delineate the direct relationship between patterns of communication and typical role behavior, whether the roles be defined by sex, age, occupation, family position, or other demographic features. First, roles are patterns of expectation by the self and others about the appropriate behavior of an individual in given social settings. "Role" is the abstract sense of what is proper for a particular class of individuals to say or do in a variety of recurring situations. Second, roles are learned through symbolic interaction. A child learns very early to gauge the responses of others to his/her behavior and gradually finds personal identity in the character of the individual to whom others appear to be responding. Through symbolic interaction one also acquires the normative culture of his/her society. Third, roles are enacted in communicative interaction. Each interpersonal encounter is a microcosm of societal role development and change. In a real sense, social roles are patterns of prescribed and proscribed communication behavior. Finally, as implied by the second and third of these points, patterns of communication both reflect role expectations and reinforce role behavior. This pattern of expectation and reinforcement establishes a cycle of stability, permanence, and a sense of rightness associated with existing role behavior. Through all aspects of communication--gesture, glance, tone, posture, language, etc.--each generation teaches the next what sort of behavior is acceptable and, thereby, what roles one must assume.

Most important roles, and particularly sex roles, are learned initially in the family. The child presents some social behavior, then observes the responses of those around him/her. If significant others approve the behavior, the child will probably continue the behavior and even elaborate on it in the future. If the action elicits disapproval or not response, it will probably be abandoned. Each encounter contributes to the child's growing sense of himself or herself. Roles acquired in the family very soon come into contact with life outside the family circle. In general, society reinforces the pattern derived from the family.

Building upon the symbolic interactionist foundation, the course is divided into seven major topic areas: family communication, small group communication, organizational communication, speaker-guidence interaction, language and nonverbal codes, communication in mental health, and mass media.

Speech communication students benefit from this sort of course because it integrates several often divided areas of interest within the field: interpersonal, small group, organizational, and rhetorical perspectives on communication. The symbolic interactionist framework transcends the contextual differences and focuses attention on fundamental communication processes. Moreover, the nature of the course forces students to draw upon all sorts of intellectual resources--theoretical or speculative statements, clinical observations, descriptive field research, and controlled laboratory experimentation. This obviates the presumed incompatibility between humanistic and behavioral approaches by directing attention to the problem, rather than defining the subject area in terms of research methods.

Communication is, in a sense, the essence of our existence and identity. "Sex Roles in Communication" highlights an aspect of communication that has received insufficient attention in the past. The author states that we need vastly increased thinking, research, writing, and teaching on all aspects of sex roles in communication. The gap between the sexes is all pervasive and is a source of conflict, misunderstanding, aggression, and repression. Speech communication scholars can help to illumine this murky subject and, perhaps, contribute to more satisfying human relations.

This article discusses the course outline called "Sex Roles in Communication" which the author is currently teaching at California State University, Los Angeles. If one is interested in this type of course, this article would be of value. It would give the individual some ideas of what is to be covered in the course and hints of what is to be expected of the individual.

Brenda J. Webb

"The Nonverbal Communication Literature"
Randall P. Harrison, Akiba A. Cohen, Wayne W. Crouch,
B. K. L. Genova, and Mark Steinberg
Journal of Communication, 22(1972), 460-476.

The article indicates the limited research in the area of nonverbal communication prior to the 1970's and that the materials for those works of the 1970's have been from such diverse areas as biology, electronics, philosophy, education, sociology, psychiatry, anthropology, and speech communication. The article points to numerous sources ranging from Playboy's Little Annie Fanny's enrollment in "kinesics" to the more outstanding writings in the field of nonverbal communication.

The earliest work of any significance is David Efron's book printed in 1941, but greatly revised and renamed Gesture, Race, and Culture in a 1972 edition. This source is limited in scope because it does not make use of the data available, but is a historical milestone. Another of the early notables is Ray Birdwhistell's Kinesics and Context, but it is considered redundant and contradictory.

The more noteworthy material is in the form of testbooks, two in particular: (1) Mark Knapp's Nonverbal Communication in Human Interaction; and (2) Nonverbal Communication edited by Robert A. Hindle. Knapp's book is more basic and includes the problem of definition, identification of nonverbal cues, and observation and recording of nonverbal cues. The book edited by Hindle is the most comprehensive of the nonverbal communication books because of the tremendous and varied input by the fourteen authors. It is a British work divided into three parts: (1) nature of communication; (2) communication in animals; and (3) nonverbal communication in man.

A third category of material is that of "research on the face". The three major works sighted are: (1) Ekman, Friesen, and Ellsworth's Emotion in the Human Face: Guidelines for Research, And an Integration; (2) C. E. Izard's The Face of Emotion; and (3) Michael Watson's Proxemic Behavior: A Cross-Cultural Study. Ekman and his colleagues present a critical review of a century of research about the face and emotions. Izard also relies heavily upon past research, but says that early interpretations have been misunderstood. Both authors borrow from Sylan S. Tonkin's theory that "feedback from our facial muscles tell us what emotion we are feeling."

A fourth and very general category includes Erving Goffman's Relations in Public which focuses on more commonplace interaction. The theory of the skin as an organ is presented in Ashley Montagu's Touching; The Human Significance of Skin. The impact of environment on man's interactions is examined in Robert Sommer's book Personal Space. The more modern nonverbal symbols are dealt with in Henry Dreyfus' book Symbol Sourcebook.

The article presents a comprehensive view of major works in the area of nonverbal communication and a reference list of thirty-nine sources. For a detailed listing of such books one should look at Martha Davis' book Understanding Body Movement: An Annotated Bibliography published in 1972. Her book contains records of nine hundred thirty-one works in the field.

Jeanette McDaniel

"Communicative Silences: Forms and Functions"
Thomas J. Bruneau
The Journal of Communication, 23(1973), 17-46.

Silence has not been studied nearly as greatly as has utterance. Yet it is just as important to the understanding of communication as is its counterpart. Silence is both a concept and an actual process of the mind. Absolute silence is not possible, as man carries on a continuous interior monologue. Perhaps the major misconception concerning silence is that it is the opposite of speech. Actually, both are interdependent. Neither makes sense without the other. Several hypotheses will be presented here, along with definitions of three major forms of silence.

One contention is that man makes his own kind of time when he thinks. Much of the incongruence he faces may be due to violations of this natural time. Continuous repetition seems to equal silence, and can be used for much the same purposes. To define silence by comparison with the concept of nothing, however, is counterproductive.

As silence appears to be a concept of the mind, so too is time. Silence is associated with "slow-time." Moments of high sensation and empathic responses to other's sensations demand silence, a slow-time sensation.

The first major form of silence is psycholinguistic silence. These are necessary and variable impositions of slow-time on the temporal sequence of speech. These are created by both encoders and decoders of speech. Encoder silences often take the form of hesitations, or fast-time silences. These are high frequency, low intensity silences of less than two seconds duration. Decoder silences are more often the slow-time processes associated with decoding speech. Slow-time and fast-time silences cannot be rigidly differentiated, but rather should be viewed as dynamic variables.

A second major form is interactive silences. These take the form of pauses in dialogue, conversation, discussion, and so forth. They can be related to affective, interpersonal relationships as well as to exchange of information or problem solving. They are particularly appropriate to interpersonal status relationships. With the strain of silence, the burden of speech becomes a basic decision. In terms of decision-making, silences can strain relationships. However, the actual process of decision-making occurs in silence.

Another purpose of interactive silence is to allow inferences about possible meanings of a message. Silence can promote interpersonal closeness or lead to embarrassment. It can also lead to intense interpersonal battles.

Other functions of interactive silence are to exert control, react to diversity, react to intense emotion, and maintain or alter interpersonal distance. Silence to establish authority-subordinate relationships is used daily. Non-persons and norm violaters soon feel the intensity of silence. Strangers and the unfamiliarity of surroundings call for silence. Violent emotions are met or shared through interactive silences. In fact, silence is the language of strong passions. Reducing interpersonal distance will also increase interactive silences.

Socio-cultural silences are the third major form of silence: those related to the characteristic manner in which entire social and cultural orders refrain from speech and manipulate both psycholinguistic and interactive silences. Western cultural silence, though rare, seems to relate primarily to conceptions of authority, both man-made and conceptions of the highest authority, or God. Silence by authority can be used to control norms, as in worship; to show respect (or disrespect), as for a socio-political station; to oppose violent expression and ignorance; and to require subordinates to do work or think for themselves. Misuse of authority results in such things as children becoming non-persons by silencing.

Two additional areas needing further study are the places of silence and the use of silence in rhetorical control. There are strong social taboos to breaking silence on certain occasions.

Many of the thoughts presented here need further research to ascertain both their accuracy and their usefulness. Certainly an abundance of thought on the topic of silence has been offered. With such diversity, an interest in some facet of this area is bound to awaken in the reader. Through this article, awareness of the total area of silence is a certainty.

David A. Bullock

"The Function of Silence: A Plea
For Communication Research"
Richard L. Johannesen
Western Journal of Speech Communication, 38(1974), 25-35.

The thesis of the article is that there is a need for emperical research "concerning the function of silence in normal, everyday, human communication process." Research has been done in the area of silence, but not to the extent of correlation of studies. The article surveys some of the research which has been done by examining silence in four contexts.

The first context is that of the role of silence in human thought processes and cultural development. An understanding of silence is necessary for "healthy communication", and silence becomes meaningful only when put into a context of verbal and nonverbal symbols. Studies of various cultures indicate that the meaning of silence, the symbol, changes from culture to culture. Robert L. Scott advocates that silence is "necessary contemplation prepatory for rhetoric", and Max Picard extends that to say that "speech cannot exist without silence". George Steiner demonstrates how, historically, silence has increased because of the increasing world of symbols and that this type of silence is unhealthy to the social structure.

The second context is that of the role of silence in purposeful, everyday, interpersonal communication. "The personality, prior experience, and cultural conditioning of an individual will influence how he perceives silence", and because meaning is always attached to silence there is always communication. There are a number of potential meanings which may be attached to silence, but no matter how "typical" those meanings they vary depending upon culture of participant, occasion involved, and the verbal and nonverbal contexts of the silence. Because of the many possible meanings of silence James N. Farr and C. J. Dover indicate the need for the lack of silence on the part of such people as management in the business world. One of the more significant studies of the interpersonal areas of silence was done by Sidney J. Barker who says that when interacting with another there must be a "flow" of silence as well as a flow of speech, and he views silence on a positive-negative scale. Denner studied the inherent difficulty of remaining silent in the presence of others, and Thomas Knutson studied discussion groups' view of silent members.

The third context is the role of silence in political and civic life. George P. Rice researched the area of citizens' "right to silence". He found that accepted legal "rules" for silence have been established but there is no solid basis other than the Fifth Amendment to determine the lawful right to silence. Jerry Faber, George Lardner and Jules Loh have studied the effects of silence as a strategy to unnerve the "Establishment". William Garvin suggests the need to beware of the silence of political candidates.

The fourth context is that of the role of silence during counseling and psychotherapy. Theodore Reik says that the least amount of emperical

research has been done in this area. Robert Fliess extends a rather "unique" Freudian-oriented view of the use of silence in psychotherapy. Tindale and Robinson developed a method for analyzing types of silence of counselor and counselee, and George F. Mahl devised two research measures to identify defensive behavior during counseling.

There is still a need to define "silence" in order that past and future research will have a basis for direction. Once that definition has been devised, there will be a need to review all research about silence and to establish goals and criteria for further research. The entire field of "silence research" is far too vague.

To understand the article, the reader must realize that it presents minimal statements about a large amount of ununified research relating to silence and that the only organizational pattern is the division into four "contexts of silence". Within those four divisions the research related to is not in time or importance order. An important feature of the article is the reference listing of sixty-one works relating to the function of silence.

Jeanette McDaniel

"Readings in Communication Theory:
Suggestions and an Occasional Caveat"
Gerald Miller
Today's Speech, 19(1971), 5-10

The purpose of this article is to make suggestions of essential reading for communication theorists. These readings focus on the concepts and approaches in the center of communication theory.

The Handbook of Social Psychology contains chapters of attitude change research by McGuire, psycholinguistics by Miller and McNeill, small group structure by Collins and Raven and mass media effects by Weiss. Miller and McNeill's chapter also includes the present methods for describing and analyzing messages, which is essential to anyone in the communication.

New Directions in the Study of Language edited by Eric Lennberg, contains selections from Eisler and Miller's laboratory experiments on psycholinguistic problems. Emphasis is placed on the view of language being originated biologically, rather than learned and essays by Carmichael, Lenneberg and Miller are included.

Meaning and Mind by Robert Terwilliger surveys and critiques psychologically oriented, learning-based language theories by such people as B.F. Skinner and Charles Osgood. Included in this book is Terwilliger's own theory. Also contained is an explanation of statistical and transformational grammer approaches. The work provides a good introduction to the psychology of language. The two preceeding works provide communication theorists methods for devising new message descriptions and analysis, however neither examines the nonverbal dimension.

It is important that a general systems orientation to communication be known. David Berlo's The Process of Communication, integrates psychology, sociology, engineering and linguistics. James Miller's Living Systems: Basic Concepts views communication as an integration of different living systems. General and Social Systems by Kenneth Berrien provides a foundation for behavioral scientist and deals with assumptions and definitions of general systems theory. General Systems Theory and Psychiatry edited by William Gray, Frederick Duhl and Nicholas Rizzo is a series of essays which trace the history and development of general systems theory and psychiatry. Reusch's "A General Systems Theory Based on Human Communication," appraises the development in the behavioral sciences and states that the conditions for a systems theory of behavior should include: entities acting or communicating, others that react or reply and the connecting processes that regulate interaction. Scheflen in "Behavioral Programs in Human Communication," states that communication theory must include theories about communicators capable of handling complex learning, social relations and culturally evolved systems of coding.

Paul Watzlawick, Janet Beaven and Don Jackson's Pragmatics of Human Communication deals with interaction patterns as they relate to behavior pathologies. It largely deals with communication as it relates to mental health and developing self-concept. Everett Rogers and Floyd Shoemaker's

Communication of Innovations: A Cross-Cultural Approach, describes communication's role in technological change.

The final recommendation is Robert Kibler and Larry Barker's Conceptual Frontiers in Speech Communication. This summarizes the proceedings at the New Orleans Conference which contains various opinions of theory building, research and needed directions for speech communication.

This paper contains recommended readings in the area of communication theory. It is important for anyone new to the area to understand where they can go for needed information and provides a summary and a direction for the readings. A bibliography is also given for each recommended volume. For anyone who is not new in the field, this article can serve as a means of review of the available literature.

Carla Deckert

Research

This section includes inciteful suggestions for conducting research as well as significant criticism of past research. All in all, research methodology is the most important tool of the scholar. Correct choice of tools leads to precision work. These articles help the careful reader make discoveries not only about the philosophy of research but the craftsmanship necessary for conducting research.

Stephen King, "Theory Testing: An Analysis and Extension."
B. Aubrey Fisher, "Evidence Varies with Theoretical Perspective."
Thomas M. Scheidel, "Evidence Varies With Phases of Inquiry."
C. T. 621, "Criticism of Emperical Research in Communication."
Charles M. Rossiter, "The Validity of Communication Experiments Using Human Subjects: A Review."
Jonathan C. Finkelstein, "Nonverbal Communication Experimenter Expectancy Effects."
Jeffrey Katzer and James Sodt, "An Analysis of the Use of Statistical Testing in Communication Research."
James E. Feltcher, "Semantic Differential Type Scales in Communication Research."
Raymond Tucker, "On the McCroskey Scales for the Measurement of Ethos."
Ralph R. Behnke, "An Analysis of Psychophysiological Research in Communication."
James O. Derry and Mark L. Knapp, "An Experimental Design for Field Studies in Speech."
Ronald Applbaum and Karl Anatol, "PERT: A Tool for Communication Research Planning."
Carl Weaver, "The Bibles of the Research Scientist."

"Theory Testing: An Analysis and Extension"
Stephen W. King
Western Journal of Speech Communication, 38(1974), 25-35.

A research begins by selecting a hypothesis based upon reasoned analysis of the probable information value once tested. Usually the scholar determines what to study in terms of his area of expertise. The design of the experiment and statistical test of the hypothesis are determined by the methodologies. The conclusions which can be determined are left to the researcher's intellect, knowledge and logic. Therefore the only problem is which hypothesis to test.

Two strategies of research are usually used in determining the hypothesis. These are theory testing which comes from direct deductions of the theory, and "I-wonder-what-would-happen-if" testing. In this method the researcher wants to see what the result would be of manipulating variables. This paper will deal with theory testing by emphasizing the importance of comparative-theory testing after single-theory testing has been done. Excessive use of single-theory testing has had a negative effect on theory building and knowledge of communication.

Theory testing begins with a theoretic statement which claims to account for a class of behavior. From this statement, a hypothesis is deduced which is similar to the theory and states that one class of phenomenon will be associated with another in some specific manner. Controlled observations are designed which test the hypothesis, the results of which either support or reject the hypothesis based on the theory. This should lead to more testing or theory modifications. In this approach the researcher is given direction, his ability to generalize past the sample is increased and he is provided "an orderly extension of the boundaries of knowledge." The probability of discovering general laws is increased using this method. Unfortunately much of the present research available was gained by using theory "proving" rather than theory-testing techniques. People who wish to concentrate on a "favorite" theory often use the theory-proving approach. The end effect of this type of approach is a closed system of theories which are isolated from one another. Two consequences result: first, little can be generalized or even known about an area when numerous separate theories exist and seem to sometimes contradict one another; second, there seems little chance of theory building when there are only single-theory tests which involve different subjects, variables, designs, statistical tests and operational definitions.

Not only is isolation a problem but theory dogma tends to also be a result of single-theory testing. This happens because of the tendency to reject all factors from consideration which are potentially damaging to the researcher's favorite theory. When the single theory is used again and again, only the phenomenon which are relevant to the theory being tested are considered so that little new theory can be looked at. This prevents, as Feyerabend argues, "facts which

cannot be unearthed except with the help of alternatives to the theory tested, and which become unavailable as soon as such alternatives are excluded."

Commitment to theories should be replaced by discovering new phenomenon by using comparative theory testing. A series of experiments should be done as, in the form Bacon introduced, by proceeding "from alternative hypothesis, through crucial experiments to exclusion of some alternatives and adoption of what is left." Chamberlin postulated that multiple hypotheses be used to gain every rational explaination of the phenomenon being advanced and examined.

There are several advantages derived from the comparative-theory testing. First it provides a basis for direct theory comparison which facilitates theory building. Secondly, new facts can be admitted for consideration and old facts are given a test. Finally the focus of this research is on understanding a phenomenon, not merely finding support of a fovorite theory. Obviously, not every research effort should be conducted by using multiple theory testing because the number of theories dealing with the same phenomenon is limited and a single test to demonstrate a partial theory must proceed multiple testing. This type of research even though it is not always definite, does balance probabilities, and should become a major strategy of future research projects.

Anyone who is considering research of hypotheses should read this article for an explaination of the two methods of theory research. The disadvantages of single-theory testing are discussed while the multiple-theory testing method is advocated. Several advantages can be gained by its use which are important when considering theory building or evaluating a testing method of any theory.

Carla Deckert

"Evidence Varies with Theoretical Perspective"
B. Aubrey Fisher
Western Journal of Speech Communication, 41(1977), 9-19.

Despite the tendency to use the catch-phrase "communication theory," the progress of communication research is largely atheoretical. Such an assertion is based, not on the familiar grounds that communication lacks or needs a theory, but that an awareness of theoretical development does not characterize the bulk of communication research today. Rather, contemporary research in communication proceeds from a primarily empirical orientation. We devise and perform studies, not from a conscious desire for theoretical development, but from a rationale developed from previous empirical studies. The methods and the techniques of empiricism, the nitty-gritty of doing research, become the principal if not the sole means for evaluating our research efforts. To say, then, that communication research is atheoretical is to imply that communication research proceeds from an empirical orientation at the sacrifice of a theoretical orientation.

One symptom of the atheoretical nature of communication research is the tendency to fail to discriminate between variables and theories. The author states that communication journals are replete with references to variables elevated to the status of theory--for example, "self-disclosure theory," "ego-involvement theory," "source credibility theory," leadership theory," "interpersonal attraction theory." Each variable is a concept which certainly may be a part of a theory by being related with other concepts in the form of a theoretical proposition. And those propositions, taken together, provide an explanation for some phenomenon (in the present case, human communication) which can be called a theory. The tendency to grant variables such omnipotent status, however, clouds the theoretical issues in favor of the variable. We rub our favorite variable(s) against other variables, singly or multiply, and thus confuse further the theoretical orientation in favor of an empirical orientation. The result is an accumulation of mountains of empirical information, but little cumulative theoretical knowledge.

Addressing the question concerning the admissibility of communication research evidence or data, several issues come immediately to mind. The first is the identity of such data. That is, what do communication data look like? What constitutes communication data? The field of communication is extraordinarily broad and includes such data as linguistic units or categories, morphemes, phonemes, markings on a paper-and-pencil test, large-scale social events, media advertising, cinematographic placements, and so on. Other issues might concern the collection of data. For example, where should communication data be collected? Wherever communication can and does take place seems an appropriate location for data collection. How should data be collected? This issue is a methodological one rather than theoretical. It addresses the question of superiority and appropriateness of a particular research method--for example, critical, experimental, qualitative, historical, descriptive, ethnomenthodological, participant-observation, and so on. Any of the variety of research methods used in communication research is not only appropriate, but potentially valuable to communication theory. For a specific research question, one

method may be preferred as more fruitful than another, but no one can deny the appropriateness and value of any research method in other circumstances.

A fourth issue of data collection, however, raises once again the principle of theoretical implication. What is the source of communication data? Do such data reflect externalized behaviors, inferred perceptions, phenomenological introspections? Such questions are absolutely unanswerable except from some theoretical orientation which views the relationships among concepts within some explanatory framework. The undisputed fact is that communication as a field of scholarly inquiry is not characterized by a single paradigm in Kuhn's sense of the term. As a scientific community of practitioners and researchers, communication scholars have nothing approaching near unanimity of opinion toward or practice in the conducting of communication inquiry. The disciplinary matrix of communication is not unified in terms of theoretical structures, methodologies, terms, operationalizations, concepts, or analytical techniques accepted and utilized. We often use the term "communication theory" as though it represented some unified body of literature or beliefs characterizing our conceptual orientations and our empirical practices. But, of course, it does not. A more accurate representation of the field of communication is that of a set of competing perspectives. These perspectives compete in the sense that each orientation reflects the practices and beliefs of some discernible segment of the scientific community, but they cannot be easily included under a single umbrella of communication theory implying a unified rationale.

To answer the question, "What is the source of communication data," then, requires placing the specific study within a theoretical, not an empirical, framework. Consequently, the first and by far most important criterion to judge the admissibility of evidence to support theoretical propositions in communication research is: Is the evidence consistent with the conceptual/theoretical rationale used to guide the research? The researcher must be aware of the theoretical perspective underlying a research effort. That awareness should be demonstrable by a rationale which articulates clearly the theoretical orientation. The typical practice of atheoretical research in communication is to provide only an empirical rationale--a list of previous research studies investigating the same variables.

The individual researcher by now is aware of the importance of a theoretical framework in the scientific enterprises. This article reemphasize to the researcher that communication research should be predicated on the purpose of supporting theoretical propositions. Any research evidence can be judged only within a conceptual/theoretical framework. And that framework can be judged only by its ability to contribute to our knowledge of the world.

Brenda J. Webb

"Evidence Varies With Phases of Inquiry"
Thomas M. Scheidel
Western Journal of Speech Communication, 41(1977), 20-31

This article looks at the three different phases of scientific inquiry and examines the standards which should be applied to each. Theory as defined by Alport is a conceptual system that explains some testable phenomenon. This testing occurs at various phases, all of which do not come from one research project. It is important to remember that each phase has a different standard for evidence.

Phase I consists in collecting observations which can become a research question. Combs, in A Theory of Data, says, "...our observations must be focused and structured to yield true data." Krippendorff states that communication data must be identifiable in time and space, have two or more component parts which should possess dynamic properties together and by themselves and the data should provide a basis for deciding if structure is transmitted among the component parts of this system. Bergmann further states that a systems perspective is essential to this area. Phase I has the goal of gaining the "fullest possible knowledge about the phenomenon."

Phase II is theory building which requires the tests of reasoning, inference and internal consistency. There is less concern with evidence. Theories being developed must be able to be generalized, and ready for prediction and testing. They must also be in agreement with the facts.

Phase III then narrows or focuses the theory. Predictions from the theory are now being tested. It is important that these tests be conducted by many different researchers who collect the data carefully.

It is important to be cautious when accepting evidence from researchers when we are unable to obtain or evaluate their first level reporting. Much of what we read concerning research comes from abstracts of articles or texts. If we are to accept this research we must be willing to test it from our own experiences or by replication.

This article provides an understanding of theory development. The reader will discover the differences between observation, theory development and theory testing. It is recommended to anyone who will be dealing with experimental results, considering observation, or reading theory. It is important to gain an awareness of what phase the research being reported is in and to become a more critical reader of testing results. Too often we rely solely on the assertions of authorities. We must learn to question and evaluate these assertions instead of merely accepting them.

Carla Deckert

"Criticism of Emperical Research in Communication"
C. T. 621
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 57(1971), 402-409.

The purpose of this article is to present criterion to be used in criticism of emperical communication research. Since neither the researcher nor "consumer" of research is capable of objectivity when procuring or viewing research, a mediator or "critical specialist" should interpret its value. Research publications should include the experiment and analysis.

Before the critic can become a "specialist" he must first "train himself" and then he will be able to analyize current research, set new standards for researchers, and educate the consumer to be more capable critics. The five criteria the critic should use when viewing research are: (1) rhetorical clarity--To what extent is the language clear to the consumer of a given experimental report? (2) potential theoretical significance--To what degree do the findings contain useful information? (3) internal validity of the research design--To what degree is the research design valid when tested against internal fallacies such as those suggested by Stanley and Campbell? (4) appropriateness of the statistical analysis--To what extent are the caculations relevant to the argument of the hypothesis? (5) external validity--To what degree are the subjects and experiment conditions representative of that segment of society to which the results apply? This type of criticism would be a "refining" process of the experiment before allowing it to go to the consumer.

The article presents a process of research criticism which would be of value to the novice experimenter. When presenting each of the five criticism criterion the authors readily interject the "lack of absolutness" involved. The summary is of almost equal value to the body of the article.

Jeanette McDaniel

"The Validity of Communication Experiments
Using Human Subjects: A Review"
Charles M. Rossiter
Human Communication Research, 2(1976), 197-206.

Most researchers agree that the aim of scientific investigation of human communication is the establishment of causal relationships among variables and data from experimentation is acknowledged to provide the soundest basis upon which to make statements about causal relationships. However, Rossiter notes that the validity of the data is sometimes questionable.

Cook and Campbell have determined four general types of validity which might be used in analyzing experiments. These are: internal validity, construct validity, statistical conclusion validity, and external validity. These may further be grouped into two major categories: the nature of the subject sample and the nature of the experiment as a social situation.

Based on his survey of all research studies published in 1966 and 1967 in three notable journals (which found over 80 percent using college students as subjects), McNemar criticized social scientific research as being "a science of the behavior of sophomores". Subsequent studies revealed the same problem

To compound this problem, the experiment is generally a social situation. Some researchers argue that the proper use of rigorous experimental methods can recreate situations for the subjects which are so real to them that the research results obtained in the experimental situation can be generalized to other situations. Others argue that humans are unique not only in the capacity to be aware of their behavior but also in the capacity to be aware of their awareness, and to consciously alter their behavior based on these awarenesses and meta-awarenesses in order to attain the goals they seek.

While this latter argument should be heartening to communication scholars (since the idea that people respond holistically to all cues present is completely compatible with current conceptualizations of communication as a complex transactional process), it does nothing to negate the arroused suspicions about validity.

In addition to the attitudes, experiences, and intentions subjects bring with them to an experiment, they are also confronted with all of the stimuli indigenous to the social situation of the experiment. Subjects will variously try to be "good", "negativistic", or "faithful", depending on what they believe will be expected of them. Subjects will try to be cooperative--enduring boredom, inconvenience, and irritation. They frequently experience evaluation apprehension. Subjects will respond in ways designed to please or impress the examiner. All of which tends to distort data.

The experimenter himself can unintentionally influence and thereby distort subject responses. Factors such as age, sex, and race as well as psycho-social characteristics of experiments (i.e., feelings of anxiety, warmth, approval), can produce biased responses.

Deception is sometimes used as a means of countering subject reactivity, but unfortunately it is not always successful.

This study examined sixty-eight experiments published in the Journal of Communication, Speech Monographs, and Human Communication Research, in 1973 and 1974. Sixty-four clearly reported some general characterization of the participating subjects (75% used college students) and four did not include adequate subject information. In fifty-two of the studies the nature of recruitment was not specific enough to be of any value, forty-four did not report where the experiment was conducted, and in fifty-three the administrator of the experiment was not specified. Deception was rerely used and the subjects' perceptions of the experience of participating in the experiment were only checked in three of the studies. In sixty-four of the studies, results were generalized without being clearly qualified in terms of the sample studied or the context of experimentation.

Based on these rather negative results, Rossiter drew four conclusions as follows:

1. Reports of communication experimentation rarely provides sufficient information to allow critical evaluation of crucial aspects of validity.

2. Validity of communication experimentation may be severely limited by the nature of subjects studied.

3. Validity of communication experimentation may be severely limited by sources of invalidity related to the reactive nature of the experiment as a social situation.

4. The literature of communication experiment includes some extremely well executed and reported studies.

Rossiter feels that the implications of this study for the communication scholar are several. Certainly, he must understand the potential threats to the validity of communication experimentation. The communication researcher must take greater care with reports, making certain that the necessary data is included. Greater care must also be taken with the selection of subjects and the settings in which the experiments take place. Rossiter suggests the possibility of patterning research methodology after that of the social psychologists since many of the same topics are studied and much of their research has been used in building human communication theory.

Theodessa Saffer

"Nonverbal Communication
Experimenter Expectancy Effects"
Jonathan C. Finkelstein
Journal of Communication, 26(Summer, 1976), 31-38.

The major thesis in this article is "...the process of collecting data...could inadvertently alter or bias the phenomenon being studied." The article describes experiments which have been done to demonstrate the variables of the experimenter which may affect communication experiment results. It also explains how both the experimenter and participant can be manipulated, consciously or unconsciously, in a manner which will change the "neutral" behavior and reaction patterns which should occur during the experiment.

There is a discussion of such variables as: (1) the experimenter's expectancy attitude before testing; (2) the experimenter's visual interaction with his participants during testing; (3) the experimenter's "vocal signals" - paralinguistic affects - during testing; and (4) the "apprehension manipulation" variable factor of the participant. In other words, what and how participants are told, by the experimenter, what will be done with the test results, and to what degree, if any, the test results will directly affect them is of great importance to determining results.

More specific attention is focused on that part of testing which comes between what the experimenter expects from the participant and the participant's response, or the "mediating stages" of testing. These stages are the participant's receptivity, motivation, and capability, and are additional variables which may alter results of communication experiments. R. L. Rosnow's model which includes receptivity and capability is included, although the model is inadequate.

Research has and is being done in relation to nonverbal cues, but no "satisfactory" model has been developed to include the diverse approaches to those cues. When considering any form of verbal communication, the subject matter may not be divorced from the nonverbal cues which will be present. Whether such cues are intentional or unintentional, they are present and bring about variables in the results of communication.

The article is of value to a novice or experienced experimenter. It presents specific variables which cannot be ignored by the communication experimenter or researcher. It also presents thirty-one other sources relating to behavior testing variables.

Jeanette McDaniel

"An Analysis of the Use of Statistical Testing in Communication Research"
Jeffrey Katzer and James Sodt
Journal of Communication, 23(1973), 251-265.

It goes without saying that statistical testing plays an important role in behavioral science research. Properly applied, the techniques contribute greatly to the development of any field. Care for correct application is essential of course, in order to avoid wasted effort, incorrect conclusions, and flawed theory.

The authors focussed their attention on two concepts, obtained effect size (OES) and power. They chose these two concepts for examination because of their general importance to nearly all statistical applications, tneir relative simplicity, and their lack of general use.

OES tells a researcher how important his results are, it helps answer the "so what?" question. It must not be confused with either a (the a priori significance level) or with p value (the minimal a which would have resulted in significant findings). Both a and p provide data regarding how likely it is that a difference between the means (a correlation) exists. The smaller these values the more sure one can be that the obtained difference (or correlation) cannot be attributable to sampling error. Neither a nor p provide any evidence about how far apart the means are; OES provides an estimate of this information. It seems obvious that a researcher would want to know both of these pieces of information, viz., (1) is there a relationship (or do the means differ significantly), and (2) if so, how big a relationship is it (or how far apart are the means).

The obtained effect size (OES) can be described in several ways. OES is a measure of the size of the correlation between the independent and dependent variables. In correlational analyses, the obtained correlation (Pearson's r, Spearman's p, etc.) is, in fact, a measure of OES. Another way of defining OES is in terms of the actual size of the difference among the means (in t test or ANOVA designs). A third interpretation of OES is in terms of the proportion of the variance of one variable which can be accounted for through knowledge of the second variable. If one views the process of research as a systematic attempt to understand the variables which affect people, then accounting for part of the variability helps explain why people differ.

Since OES seems to be such an important statistic, the authors were interested in (1) whether journal articles reported it, (2) if it were not reported, was there sufficient information so that a knowledgable reader could compute it, (3) whether the author considered it in drawing concludions about his research, and (4) if it were confused with a probability value (a or p).

The power of a statistical test is the probability of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis; it is the probability of finding a real difference if one really exists. A second use of power deals with the interpretation of non-significant findings. A third interpretation of power concern the estimation of the probability of a significant finding's being wrong. The power of a statistical test depends upon the level set (the higher a, the greater the power); the number of alternatives considered (one alternative tests have greater power); the sample

size (the larger the sample size, the greater the power); and the location of the alternative hypothesis (the further it is from the null, the greater the power).

The most troublesome aspect of their investigation was without question the lack of information reported in many studies. Another portion of the trouble caused by insufficient information had to do with the treatment of sample size; subjects discarded without explanation or cell n's not reported were the key faults. The most frustrating aspect of this study for the authors was their inability to quickly understand the statistical procedures employed in each journal article. In many instances they could determine or estimate the desired information, but only after some reading between the lines and considerable computation.

In general there is some information which should be included in every report of statistical testing--regardless of the procedure employed. This information can be divided into two types, that which is decided before the data are collected, and that which depends upon the data. In the first category fall a, the power desired, the minimal difference or effect size looked for, and the sample size needed. The second category of information includes the sample size actually used, the value of the obtained statistic (e.g. t, F, X^2), the p value for that statistic, and the OES for all significant findings.

This article would be of great value to the individual employing statistical testing. The authors discuss the information considered as the minimum needed for an intelligent understanding of the statistics employed. For the most part, all of these items are easily computable, and many computer programs provide them automatically.

Brenda J. Webb

"Semantic Differential Type Scales
in Communication Research"
James E. Feltcher
Western Journal of Speech Communication, 36(1972), 269-275

The semantic differential is a tool which has been long used in communication research, but a tool which has come under some attack in terms of reliability and "factor invariance". The purpose of Fletcher's article is to put these semantic differential issues into clearer perspective.

A semantic differential is a set of rating scales marked off in odd number of steps (typically five or seven) between extremes marked by bipolar adjectives. The subject marks the step on each rating scale which best represents his response to the "concept", which is usually typed at the top of the page. The various semantic differentials used to measure "meaning" typically reduce in factor analysis to three factors: evaluative (E), potency (P), activity (A). Long lists of concepts, each with its loadings on these three factors, have been compiled and published. Osgood and his associates have done extensive work in this area and the author recommends that those researchers interested in employing semantic differentials should draw their instruments from the work already completed.

While the great bulk of empirical research reported in communication journals might be characterized as construct-dependent, the investigators were concerned with some descriptive constructs, or small classes of human behaviors, the existence of which and the characteristics of which had been intuitively developed. The object of descriptive studies is to accumulate information about some behavior from which progressively more powerful constructs may be derived. Both of these methods of study involve sampling from large populations of stimuli, of responses, of subjects, and of contexts, but their use of the semantic differential may be quite different. If the semantic differential is chosen as a tool, researchers should make certain that the development of the tool involves (a) the use of factor analysis to determine the number and nature of factors entering into semantic description and judgment, and (b) the selection of a set of specific scales corresponding to these factors which can be standardized as a measure of meaning.

The purpose of requiring factor analysis in any data collected from rating scales is not related to reliability. Usually factor analysis involves the reduction of a rectangular matrix of data by systematically extracting variables which account for the greatest variance in that matrix. Errors may come from any of the four dimensions of a communication investigation--stimulus/message, response, subject, or context. One approach to dealing with error might be called the specific solution. This solution assumes that generalization can occur only when concepts, scales, subjects, and measurement contexts are the same. This would require the researcher to subject the instrument to a "new" factor analysis with each bit of data and thereby place great time, space, and cost restrictions on the study. Another approach might be called a general solution. In this approach the same instrument is given to many small groups of subjects in many different studies. If they continually produce the same approximate factor structure, then reasonably stable descriptions of human behavior will have been isolated.

The author recommends that researchers relying upon rating scale instruments such as the semantic differential should follow these guidelines:

(1) Select a semantic differential that has been widely used.

(2) Test new instruments with as many subjects as possible, rating many concepts in many contexts.

(3) Make and report a factor analysis as a routine step in any study involving sets of rating scales.

(4) Note the ways in which and extent to which the new study replicates aspects of other studies.

This article does not advocate discontinuing the use of the semantic differential. Quite the contrary, as the semantic differential has acquired considerable stature in communication research because of its wide usage. Fletcher simply advocates a more responsible use of the instrument by all researchers.

Thodessa Saffer

"On the McCroskey Scales for the Measurement of Ethos"
Raymond Tucker
Central States Speech Journal, 22(1971), 127-129.

The purpose of this report was to discuss the semantic differential scales developed by James C. McCroskey for measuring ethos, and to suggest directions for researchers interested in the refinement of such instruments.

Based on a series of experiments, McCroskey extracted two underlying ethos factors, authoritativeness and character, and provided a method of measuring initial or terminal ethos on these dimensions. Twenty-one Likert-type statements comprised the authoritativeness factor and twenty comprised the character factor. Six semantic differential scales, relevant to each of these two factors, were derived through factor analytic procedures. It was noted that numerous investigators have employed these scales in research studies.

The author suggested that there is a lack of scale selection based on factor analysis and that, consequently, the McCroskey scales have wide appeal for speech scholars. The contribution to ethos measurement was also noted. The breakdown of the two components of authoritativeness and character support the view that ethos is not unidimensional. McCroskey's findings imply that other important variables such as pathos or logos may not be unidimensional and that factor analysis might be used to derive the components subject to certain limitations.

Derivations of factors via factor analysis cannot provide an underlying structure that can be expected to remain invariant over concepts, subjects, time, culture, or experiments. Thus, the researcher using McCroskey scales without further factor analysis could, in fact, be employing a set of scales that are not characterized by a high degree of intercorrelation. However, continuous application of factor analysis might move the field closer to a determination of the factor structure of the major reference variables in persuasion.

The use of marker variables is also proposed. Marker variables were described as highly loaded variables which are carried from one factor study to another as a basis for identifying recurrent factors. Thus, McCroskey's six semantic differential scales would qualify as markers but other scales would be needed to identify the emergence of a new factor structure. Extensive scrutiny of the literature, for the purpose of arriving at a representative set of items to be included with the market variables, was encouraged. For example, if fifteen representative scales were included with the six marker scales of McCroskey, then the original set of markers could be confirmed and the relationship to the new scales could be evaluated. Through such an approach, the process of concept dimensionalizing could reach a high degree of stability, although it should never be taken for granted.

Tucker's article reviews McCroskey's landmark experimental development of a method for measuring the authoritativeness and character dimensions of ethos. Researchers are warned against assuming absolute stability of concept dimensions and a method for refining the measurement of concept dimensions is technically described.

Donna Jensen

"An Analysis of Psychophysiological Research in Communication"
Ralph R. Behnke
Central States Speech Journal, 22(1971), 402-409

To date, a great number of different methods have been used to measure and define the human communication activity. This article deals with some of the existing methods of, and possibilities for, testing the psychophysiological reactions inherent in the communication activity. Although these methods are relatively new to the field of speech communication, and have yet to show any possibility for perscriptive statement concerning communication, the information about the interaction between the mind and body has shed some light on communication that suggests the future usefulness of such methods.

There are a number of popular physiological measurements that will reflect the response of a communicant to the communication activity. Heart beat rate and the electrical conductivity of the skin (conductive because of the greater or lesser amount of perspiration) are the most popular among psychophysiologists because of the strong response and the ease of testing such responses. After these two methods come the testing of: tension in the muscles, blood pressure, depth of respiration, frequency of respiration, electrical brain activity, and the enlargement of blood vessels (measured by the increase in the size of the fingers). All of these physical responses will show the mental activity of the person being tested.

The polygraph or "lie detector" is one of the easiest instruments to use in the study of psychophysiological responses to the communication activity. The polygraph measures and records the heart rate, skin response, depth and frequency of respiration, and to some degree the electrical brain activity. Advances in polygraphs have reduced the size, and resulting clumsiness, to the point that small units can be worn by the communicant without hampering movement. Now the instramentation may weigh less than twenty grams, and may "radio" the response information to a computer several hundred feet away.

With such instrumentation, we are now able to test the psychophysiological reactions of the individual in the communication process. This is not to suggest that the meaning of each word or even each meeting between communicants has been discovered; rather that speech communications has found a new tool that may be of importance in the future measurement of communication. Problems of use still exist in this method. We are still measuring the primary physical reactions with this system. Calm states such as sleep or relaxation will affect the polygraph measurements in much different ways than will active states such as walking or gesturing. At this time, no concrete or foolproof means have been found to deal with extraneous movement or extraneous mental activity.

Findings have indicated that students with high test anxiety (heart beat increase, shallow and rapid respiration, and blood vessel enlargement) also had higher heart rates in problem solving situations and in those particular problem solving situations were less effective. Drs. Malmo, Boag, and Smith found that muscle tension increases during criticism and decreases during praise. Doctors Behnke, Carlile, and Lamb have shown that they are able to correlate heart rate and self-reported

anxiety levels for the "relatively calm speaker" sixty-six percent of the time. Dr. Sainsbury observes that blood vessels expand in the fingers when disturbing subjects are discussed in interpersonal situations. These experiments and resulting measurements are just the beginning of psychophysiological application in the field of speech communication, it is a technology that communication students must find applications for if it is to be of aid in measurement of communication situations.

This article is a very basic look into this field; well worth the reading for the novice interested in physiological reactions to communication.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

"An Experimental Design for Field Studies in Speech"
James O. Derry and Mark L. Knapp
Central States Speech Journal, 22(1971), 43-47

Examined in this article are two currently accepted designs for testing the effects of public speeches, a new field experiment and the conditions it was tested under. A popular design is the "before-after with control group." In this design the control group must be divided into sections so that one section is isolated from hearing the speech. The problem encountered with this design is that it is sometimes contaminated and could produce inaccurate results. Brooks offered the "separate sample offset design." This does provide for control of contamination, is sensitive to attitude shifts but is limited in the number of variables which a small audience can handle.

The alternative field experiment used a test booklet which was randomly given to five different audiences consisting of 25 males from a Rotary Club in Chicago. Contained within the booklet were 20 True-False items, a Likert-type attitude scale which also had 20 items and McCroskey's Speaker Authoritativeness Scale. A standard speech was given to each audience, including identical speaker introductions.

Results of this study do not clearly determine that contamination did not occur. It did provide for an inexpensive sample size which is easily replicated, and several variables can be tested at once.

This article explains an experimental field design used to test audiences of public speeches. It also provides comparison with two other designs and a bibliography of their sources. This would provide an interesting base for research of various variables relating to audiences if one were to compare all three types of designs.

Carla Deckert

"PERT: A Tool for Communication Research Planning"
Ronald Applbaum and Karl Anatol
Journal of Communication, 21(1971), 368-380.

The article is sub-divided into three major sections the first of which is an introduction to PERT (Program Evaluation Review Technique). The next section is devoted to explaining how PERT functions in a research project by explaining the five operational steps of the PERT system. Section three states the five advantages that PERT can contribute to communication research.

As time continues to pass, research in the field of communication has become more and more intricate in respect to the experimental design and statistical procedures used. The size of the projects have tended to increase commensurately with the complexity of the research. PERT provides more service than just pre-planning. It helps the researcher to anticipate pitfalls and problems, helps with in service evaluation of the project, helps predict time sequences for intermediate and final objectives and helps facilitate guidance and flexibility. The unique characteristic of PERT is the network for activities and the inclusion of statistics and computers for the purpose of analysis.

How PERT functions in a research project. There are five operational setups in the system. (1) The project's primary and secondary tasks should be determined. Then the tasks should all be listed in their logical sequence. (2) A plan of action should be developed for accomplishing each event. Each task or event should be examined by the researcher and potential pitfalls should be recognized and dealt with before they happen. (3) The events and their activities should be represented pictorially. A schematic diagram of step one should be developed. This step can also help screen future difficulties. (4) The time estimates from the PERT network (steps two and three) should be calculated for each activity. This calculation helps provide sequences for intermediate and final objectives. Help to anticipate problems in the project. Help the researcher in allocating resources. Provide an instrument for measurement of the project while in service. (5) The PERT network should be modified as problems arise. If errors in judgment have been made the PERT network can be adapted or modified to a realistic network.

The third section of the article propounds the advantages of PERT for research in the field of communication. There are two primary advantages to PERT and several secondary advantages. (1) The PERT network is molded to fit each specific research project. This is good considering the range of research done in a broad area like communication. (2) PERT network provides a superb device for replicating experiments. The networks of the original experiment and the replication can be compared side by side. This might help explain variance in results and help provide accurate replication. The secondary advantages include: (a) verifying the experimental designs and statistical procedures; (b) predicting intermediate and final objective timing sequence; (c) help in avoiding problems with internal validity; (d) focusing upon potential pitfalls and problems; and, (e) modifying the network during research project. One additional advantage is: PERT is not difficult to learn and not expensive to implement.

The value of this article is that it provides a clear concise overview of an extremely useful tool for communication researchers.

Linus H. Brandt

"The Bibles of the Research Scientist"
Carl Weaver
Today's Speech, 19(1971), 55-58.

A bible is a book to be read again and again. Each discipline has them, and research scientists could not really move forward without them. A researcher in the scientific study of speech communication would benefit greatly by three in particular.

The first is a five volume set edited by Elliot Aronson and Gardner Lindzey, The Handbook of Social Psychology. The authors are mostly psychologists, as would be expected, although sociologists, anthropologists, and political scientists have also contributed. Probably due to the fact that we are relatively new to the scientific study of communication, it is nevertheless ironic that there is no speech communication name in the list of authors of such a valuable set of books to our field.

This is the revision of the original two volume set edited by Lindzey alone. The Handbook offers 45 chapters in 2,500,000 words. It is difficult to find a chapter in the five volumes that holds less than great concern for the communication scientist.

The second bible is Educational Measurement, edited by E. F. Lindquist, and deals with test construction and analysis. The first section lays the groundwork on the functions of measurement. The second section then shows how to make, administer, and evaluate a paper-and-pencil test. This is by far the most common type of measurement used in our discipline. If not properly constructed, paper-and-pencil tests can void the results of whatever hypothesis is tested by them. This book starts from the beginning and teaches the reader step by step how to make tests to avoid just such pitfalls.

In the third bible we meet a book about our discipline and written by speech communication people: The History of Speech Education in America, edited by Karl Wallace. This book thoroughly covers the history of our field. It is of necessity to understand where we have been, so that we can insure that we are, in fact, moving forward.

The use of these three books, in a continuous manner, will move the reader into the realm of the expert in his field. Knowing which books are considered to be the signposts of a discipline is particularly enlightening to the uninitiated. To the person who is devoting (or who is considering devoting) his life's work to the area, such knowledge serves to enhance or confirm his stature as a professional.

David A. Bullock

Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication may be the least understood but the most discussed area in the field. The major problem is the lack of a central focus. Notice the overwhelming attention given to teaching interpersonal communication and evaluating students who are learning about interpersonal communication while, on the other hand, there are so few articles that help explicate a theory of interpersonal communication. The articles in this section are more than representative of the literature in the area, they are the core of the available literature. It is of some note, therefore, that the only difference between the first and last article in the section is in the way the same basic question is asked.

Donald P. Cushman and B. Thomas Florence, "The Development of Interpersonal Communication Theory."

W. Barnett Pearce, "Consensual Rules in Interpersonal Communication: A Reply to Cushman and Whiting."

W. Barnett Pearce, "Teaching Interpersonal Communication as a Human Science: A Comparative Analysis."

Joseph A. Ilardo, "Why Interpersonal Communication?."

Fred D. Jandt, "Why Interpersonal Communication? - Round II."

Charles R. Berger and Richard J. Calabrese, "Some Explorations in Initial Interaction and Beyond: Toward a Developmental Theory of Interpersonal Communication."

Dudley D. Cahn, "Interpersonal Communication and Transactional Relationships: Clarification and Application."

Leonard C. Hawes and David H. Smith, "A Critique of Assumptions Underlying the Study of Communication in Conflict."

Virginia Kidd, "Happily Ever After and Other Relationship Styles: Advice on Interpersonal Relations in Popular Magazines, 1951-1973."

Judy Hiller Goldberg and Alvin A. Goldberg, "Family Communication."

Arthur P. Bochner, "Conceptual Frontiers in the Study of Communication in Families: An Introduction to the Literature."

Barbara Lieb-Brilhart, "Issues in Teaching Interpersonal Communication."

John Stewart, "An Interpersonal Approach to the Basic Course."

Arthur Bochner and Clifford Kelly, "Interpersonal Competence: Rationale, Philosophy and Implementation of a Conceptual Framework."

Thomas Tortoriello and Lynn Phelps, "Can Students Apply Interpersonal Theory."

"The Development of Interpersonal Communication Theory"
Donald P. Cushman and B. Thomas Florence
Today's Speech, 22(1974), 11-15.

This essay is concerned with providing a clear, concise, and well developed conceptualization of interpersonal communication, something missing in the literature of today. Because of this lack we shall have to set our own evaluative criteria and provide an explication of method. To provide the criteria for evaluation we use a three part system: a logical rigor which requires clear and precise rules for operationalization, and a suggestiveness that will provide a base wide enough for further work and a base that provides insight into interpersonal communications.

The logical rigor of definition and differentiation is fullfilled with the distinguishing levels of task that the various communication fields carry out. Mass communication coordinates human activities in regard to social and cultural institutions. Organizational communication deals, principally, with coordination of human activity coordinated by common interests. Therefore, interpersonal communication which coordinates human activity in regard to the development, presentation, and validation of individual self-concepts, is clearly and logically differentiated by definition of its level of task.

The empirical rigor has already been provided by such researchers and theorists as R. D. Lang, S. Miller, A. R. Lee, to name only a few. Measurements devised by these researchers and theorists have enabled rules for operationalization to be formed that support this communication theory of interpersonal communication, viewed as the transfer of symbolic information which coordinates human activity in regard to the development, presentation, and validation of individual self-concept. Some of these measurements are: statements relating objects to objects, persons to objects, and persons to persons; information providing communication networks regarding relationships, and levels of agreement, understanding, and realization of perceptions of relationship.

The suggestiveness of this conceptualization can be best seen by taking one particular theoretical proposition and showing how it is refined and improved. Joseph Woelfel's Linear Forced Aggregate Theory argues that changes in attitude and rates of behavior are most economically explained and predicted on the basis of the mean value of the incoming communication which recommends a given attitude or rate of behavior. The refinement that this conceptualization suggests is: (1) that an individual's interpersonal information will recommend his relationship to objects or people, and (2) an individual's concept of relationship to an object or person will determine his attitude and behavior in regard to others and other objects.

Only further research will provide the final evaluation of this conceptualization and its importance to the field of interpersonal communication. However, a beginning has been made where there was none before, a beginning which has a logical rigor; an empirical rigor, and a suggestiveness.

This essay may be of interest to those students of interpersonal communication, or any other communication field, that are interested in the development of conceptualizations, theories, or models in their field. The universiality of the bibliography concerned with this essay may also be of some interest to the speech communication student.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

"Consensual Rules in Interpersonal Communication:
A Reply to Cushman and Whiting"
W. Barnett Pearce
The Journal of Communication, 23(1973), 160-168.

Donald Cushman and Gordon Whiting, in "An Approach to Communication Theory: Toward Consensus on Rules," The Journal of Communication, 22 (1972), 217-238, present an important movement from a monadic orientation of individual's concepts and mental sets to an analysis of interpersonal processes in which two or more persons cooperatively create and enforce rules which regulate their own communicative behavior. Although this is an important conceptual movement in the right direction, there are some weaknesses in their article.

First, there are implications for the types of research done by members of the discipline that are not well discussed. Whole research traditions might be made obsolete and new ones initiated if Cushman and Whiting successfully establish communication rules as the controlling concern in research. These implications call for much more attention.

Second, Cushman and Whiting have failed to mention the work of others which is very closely related to their own movement. The interactional approach to sociolinguistics and such concepts as "speech communities" and "speech events" have already been dealing with communication rules, but are not considered in Cushman and Whiting's article.

Third, their concept of communication behavior is too restricted. Messages may be considered as positively or negatively evaluated acts which one does to or for another, rather than strictly information transmissions. The studies of semiotics and "behavior exchange" have already shown such rules regulating costs and rewards in interpersonal relationships.

Finally, Cushman and Whiting's discussion implies that rules have an on/off character tied to the identities of the participants or to the characteristics of the social environment in which they communicate. To account for the variety and complexity of communication behavior in some relationships, however, the concept of hierarchically ordered contracts must be developed. Contracts are always the creation of the participants and apply only to a particular relationship. They contain within themselves rules, sometimes even several sets of rules, together with "switching cues" which signal which set of rules is salient at a particular time. Considering this complex concept, a simple listing of rules is counterproductive.

The primary goals of this analysis were to explain what is happening in communication behavior more thoroughly and to incorporate the insights and research from other disciplines in communication theory. The insights provided in interpersonal communication behaviors alone make this article valuable. The additional sources mentioned in other disciplines which relate to such study are an invaluable bonus for the reader.

David A. Bullock

"Teaching Interpersonal Communication as a Human Science:
A Comparative Analysis"
W. Barnett Pearce
Communication Education, 26(1977), 104-112.

Interpersonal communication is now a very popular basic which has come about largely because of two happenings during the past two years. The first happening was the recognition of the importance of interpersonal processes by theorists, and the second was a social factor, since interpersonal communication was an intellectual fad in the late 60's and early 70's. Over half a century of research in various academic disciplines went into the first development. The notable names are: Mead in sociology, Mayo in industrial relations, Sullivan in clinical psychology, and Cantril in perceptual psychology. The fad of the second development was rooted in the idealism characterized by the radical social romanticism prevalent during that period.

Even though it is recognized as being popular, there is little consensus as to what interpersonal communication is or ought to be. This article explores three basic types of this communication and offers the heritage, objectives and pedagogic procedures for each. Those types are: Objective Scientific, Humanistic Celebration, and Humane Scientific.

The historical origins of the Objective Scientific type are grounded in experimental psychology, sociology, and mass communication research. It is characterized by the mechanistic model of man with a deterministic concept of behavior stressing the variables in testing research. This eliminates the mentalistic or spiritual concept of man which makes possible classical scientific virtues of description, prediction, explanation and control and using only terms which name emperically measured variables. The smallest unit of analysis is preferred in the study of behaviors rather than action, and attitudes rather than values. Human function is viewed as a compromise of a large set of simple behaviors existing in a web of causal relationships, which, if discovered, would allow prediction of what behavior would follow certain stimuli. Research in this method is directed to select variables of intrinsic interest which are then manipulated and their effects described. This approach does not differentiate between interpersonal or other forms of communication but surveys communication in contexts, one of which is interpersonal. Some names associated with this approach are: Descartes, Wiener, Skinner and Capella. The text authors are: McCrosky, Wheeless and Mortensen.

Humanistic Celbration is rooted in the 60's and early 70's with an affinity to the T-groups, the NTL style and other "awareness activities which revolve around value clarification, assertiveness training and self acceptance." The goal of this approach is to optimize human potentials and avoid problems. This type of interpersonal consists of a romantic concept of man which uses education to promote Maslow's self-actualization through one's own nature or, as Roger states, "To be that self which one really is" and to facilitate supportive interactions with others. The focus is on personal development which requires interaction with others emphasizing learning a set of insights which are discoverable by anyone. The developed person would be responsive

to his nature rather than in control of it. The names associated with this approach in the textbooks are: Patton and Giffin and Stewart.

The Humane Scientific approach is rooted in social sciences. It differs in format from objective scientific but specifies that study must include meanings and mentalistic terms as well as behavior. This approach has conceptual affinity with Aristotle, Kant, Weber, Taylor and Von Wright to mention a few. It is based on the concept that man is both physical and an actor. Nature has both a web of causal determinancy and the potential for self-reflective thinking. Human action occurs at a number of levels. The oxymoron in this approach is that it attempts to encompass both study of social meanings (the actor's intentions and interpretations of his own behavior) of behavior and description of the causal relations among behavior. Textbooks including this approach are written by Miller and Steinberg, Rossiter and Pearce, and Pearce.

The Objective Scientific pedagogic procedures in the classroom include reviewing, summarizing, interpreting and researching studies as well as designing and conducting studies. Students must be able to distance themselves from communication and be able to handle abstract verification procedures. This approach is deficient in that it assumes that a theorist may make observations which are not theory-ladened with variables which exist independently of perceptual process. It also ignores the existence of institutional facts which exist only in the mind of a person and are not available to an observer. Finally, it omits significant parts of human experience which are involved in communication.

Humanistic Celebration would involve analysis of contemporary social problems in the classroom, along with readings, sharing poetry, and exchanging experience or participation in structured activities designed to improve selected communication skills and discussion of particular communication activities. It is deficient in substance of teaching because it is not designed to produce or impart propositional knowledge of communication, emphasizing emotions rather than thinking because it is value ladened and demands behavioral compliance rather than cognitive considerations.

The Humane Scientific has both cognitive and behavioral goals as it strives to develop conceptual apparatus enabling students to understand communication and increase ability to choose which forms of communication they participate in. Classroom activities depend upon the behavior being studied, with a goal of the student being able to articulate his understanding of communication and possess an array of options from which to choose between in order to control his own behavior.

The reader will gain a knowledge of three types of approaches to the study of interpersonal communication from this article. A background of each approach is presented along with its objectives and which textbooks offer each approach. Finally the reader will gain an insight into the ways each approach could be applied to a classroom situation and the limitations each might have depending upon the type of students and the overall goals sought.

Carla Deckert

"Why Interpersonal Communication?"
Joseph A. Ilardo
Speech Teacher, 21(1972), 1-6

The difference between interpersonal communication and public speaking courses is distinct. Public speaking courses are based on a one-to-many concept of communication, and these courses stress the importance of persuasion of many by one speaker. Interpersonal communication courses are based on a one-to-one and a one-to-few concept in which the student develops his or her interpersonal attractions, develops an understanding of relationships, and experiences personal growth.

Interpersonal communication courses have been developed because of the students' attitudes toward education, the teachers' interests, and the speech communication departments' contact with such psychologists as Abraham Maslow, Carl R. Rogers, and Rollo May. The students' attitudes toward education have called for a greater pertinence to daily life. The teachers' interests have become interests that are more concerned with effective communication as a humanizing force. Psychologists, such as Rollo May, have provided the speech communication departments with a view of today's world that shows the constant change and flux which affects us all. May parallels this world by drawing from the Hellenistic Age of Greece, the dawn of the Middle Ages, and the dawn of the Renaissance. All of these periods were periods of changing views, myths, and symbols. Today's world has shown these changes in the significant opposition to the "compete-achieve-consume-die" mentality; man is now seen more as a part of nature than before.

Because men and women define themselves in terms of the views which they hold, the myths that are important to them, and the symbols that they use, this change in the views, myths, and symbols is threatening and anxiety producing. In Greece, the theatre provided a release from the tensions that were produced by their anxieties of change. In providing this release the theatre became a sort of therapy. In every age of change philosophers and educators have, also, dealt in a sort of therapist role. Today, the departments of speech communication, in teaching interpersonal communication, are serving as agents under whose auspices a sort of mass therapy occurs. Effective communication can result in personal growth, realization of potential, and establishing meaningful relationships, all of which are "therapeutic".

"...if teachers of interpersonal communication maintain a sense of modesty as to their capacities and those of their courses, if they refrain from anti-intellectualism for which some of their colleagues in psychology have been criticized, if we see to it that interpersonal communication remains with soundly established academic endeavor, we shall avoid the more serious dangers which await us. Avoiding these, we shall perform a valuable educational service for our students and ourselves." This "valuable educational service" will be to aid the student of interpersonal communication to develop a communication background that will aid them in facing today's ever-changing world of which Rollo May speaks.

This essay may allow the reader valuable insights into some of the reasoning behind the interpersonal communication offerings in today's colleges and universities.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

"Why Interpersonal Communication? - Round II"
Fred D. Jandt
Today's Speech, 22(1974), 37-39.

Dr. Jandt prefaces this article with the statement: "This essay refutes the contemporary view that courses in interpersonal communication provide a sort of 'mass therapy'. Rather, interpersonal communication is the study of how values and self-identity are formed through face-to-face interaction". The "...contemporary view..." refers to an article entitled "Why Interpersonal Communication?" authored by Dr. Joseph A. Ilardo in Speech Teacher, 21(1974).

Drawing from a background in speech communication, Dr. Jandt, gives us a generalization of communication models: "to transmit information from a communication source to a communication receiver" and/or "to manipulate the behavior of a communication receiver by a communication source". He holds that such speech communication models, and like models developed by psychologists such as Abraham Maslow, Carl R. Rogers, William Schutz, and Rollo May, are all "culturebound". "Interpersonal communication taught from this perspective is not related to the historical developments of our discipline" (that of speech communication). "There is the question, ...whether speech communication educators step beyond their own unique specialities in dealing so directly with the therapeutic encounter."

If today's communication models, which are based on psychological models and are "culturebound", should not be the basis of interpersonal communication, then what should be that base? Dr. Jandt suggests that interpersonal communication is a part of the speech communication discipline and that it should be an academic study of the social process of face-to-face interaction. "A transactional view of human communication ...consistent with the academic tradition of speech education." To this end, Jandt proposes a model of interpersonal communication that is a transactional view of human communication and that is related to the socialization process instead of a model that is a form of "mass therapy". The sources of such a socialization approach define the symbolic interaction of the communicator in their face-to-face exchange of verbal and non-verbal cues. Jandt gives examples of the interpersonal communications courses at the University of Washington and the State University College of Brockport which use such a socialization model to teach interpersonal communication.

Dr. Jandt's statements in this article reflect the concern of many teachers of interpersonal communication; those who fear that speech communication is becoming too therapy oriented without having instructors that are qualified as therapists. Symbolic interaction and a socialization approach may be the answer to those who wish to make their courses more relevent and yet hesitate to "psycho-analize" their students.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

"Some Explorations in Initial Interaction and Beyond:
Toward a Developmental Theory of Interpersonal Communication"
Charles R. Berger and Richard J. Calabrese
Human Communication Research, 1(1975), 99-112.

This essay presents a theoretical perspective for dealing with entry stages of interpersonal interaction. This essay suggests three stages of interaction which are: entry phase in which strangers meet; personal phase in which basic values, attitudinal issues, and personal problems are discussed by interactants, and the exit phase which may be best exampled by divorce. Seven axioms and twenty-one theorems presented in this paper suggest priorities for study of the development of interpersonal relationships.

Axiom 1: Given the high level of uncertainty present at the onset of the entry phase, as the amount of verbal communication between strangers increases, the level of uncertainty for each interactant in the relationship will decrease. As uncertainty is further reduced, the amount of verbal communication will increase.

Axiom 2: As nonverbal affiliative expressiveness increases, uncertainty levels will decrease in an initial interaction situation. In addition, decreases in uncertainty level will cause increases in nonverbal affiliative expressiveness.

Axiom 3: High levels of uncertainty cause increases in information seeking behavior. As uncertainty levels decline, information seeking behavior decreases.

Axiom 4: High levels of uncertainty in a relationship cause decreases in the intimacy level of communication content. Low levels of uncertainty produce high levels of intimacy.

Axiom 5: High levels of uncertainty produce high rates of reciprocity. Low levels of uncertainty produce low reciprocity rates.

Axiom 6: Similarities between persons reduce uncertainty, while dissimilarities produce increases in uncertainty.

Axiom 7: Increases in uncertainty level produce decreases in liking; decreases in uncertainty level produce increases in liking.

Note that Axioms 6 and 7 taken together suggest that uncertainty level mediates between similarity and liking. It should be made clear, however, that variables other than similarity-dissimilarity influence uncertainty levels.

Theorem 1: Amount of verbal communication and non-verbal affilative expressiveness are positively related.

Theorem 2: Amount of communication and intimacy level of communication are positively related.

Theorem 3: Amount of communication and information seeking are inversely related.

Theorem 4: Amount of communication and reciprocity rate are inversely related.

Theorem 5: Amount of communication and liking are positively related.

Theorem 6: Amount of communication and similarity are positively related.

Theorem 7: Nonverbal affiliative expressiveness and intimacy level of communication content are positively related.

Theorem 8: Nonverbal affiliative expressiveness and information seeking are inversely related.

Theorem 9: Nonverbal affiliative expressiveness and reciprocity rate are inversely related.

Theorem 10: Nonaffiliative expressiveness and liking are positively related.

Theorem 11: Nonverbal affiliative expressiveness and similarity are positively related.

Theorem 12: Intimacy level of communication content and information seeking are inversely related.

Theorem 13: Intimacy level of communication content and reciprocity rate are inversely related.

Theorem 14: Intimacy level of communication content and liking are positively related.

Theorem 15: Intimacy level of communication content and similarity are positively related.

Theorem 16: Information seeking and reciprocity rate are positively related.

Theorem 17: Information seeking and similarity are negatively related.

Theorem 18: Information seeking and similarity are negatively related.

Theorem 19: Reciprocity rate and liking are negatively related.

Theorem 20: Reciprocity rate and similarity are negatively related.

Theorem 21: Similarity and liking are positively related.

Because of space requirements this is merely a listing of the essay's axioms and theorems. The 13 page essay takes time to explain and draw conclusions from these listed axioms and theorems, explainations and conclusions which may be of great interest and importance to the communication major. The essay also gives an impressive bibliography that will be important to the student.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

"Interpersonal Communication and Transactional Relationships: Clarification and Application"
Dudley D. Cahn
Communication Quarterly, 24(1976), 38-44

The aim of the article is to describe a model and topology designed to aid in the selection of concepts, principles and skills which are vital to the study of interpersonal communication.

The article is divided into four main sections: (1) self validation model; (2) topology of transactional relationships; (3) concept building; and (4) negotiation skills.

The self validation model is essentially a perceptual theory model of interpersonal communication. The model is composed of three stages. First stage is the direct perspective level of the validation model. Each person involved is directly perceiving his/her self and the other person(s) involved in the situation. Self concept is defined as a direct perspective of one's own self. The second stage is the meta-self-concept level of the validation model. The meta-self-concept is defined as the information that others communicate to a person about him/her self. This is the socially derived aspect of one's self concept. Meta-self-concept is produced by role-taking behavior. Stage three is the level at which two people develop a relationship based on one another's comparison of self concept and meta-self-concept. The comparison will either conform or disconform one's self concept.

The section on topology of transactional relationships begins by defining transactional relationship in terms of Wilmot's: I-see-you - - seeing-me. A crucial factor of transactional relationships is based upon the presentation of one's self evaluation. This is known as self esteem. There are three types of transactional relationships resulting from self evaluation: (1) counterdependent, where both persons perceive the other person in a negative manner; (2) interdependent, where both persons perceive the other in a positive manner; and (3) unidependent, where one person perceives the other as positive but this perception is not reciprocated by the other.

The concept-building skills and the negotiation skills relate to the instructional facet f studying interpersonal communication. There are three skills which make up the concept-building skills: (1) self-awareness skills; (2) self disclosure skills; and (3) meta-self-awareness skills. The negotiation skills consist of "counting" skills which relate to the validation of self concepts, and a self esteem position model analogious to the four life states of transactional analysis: (1) I don't count/I don't count you; (2) I count/I don't count you; (3) I don't count/I count you; and (4) I count/ you count.

The value of this article is that the reader is provided with clear and concise explanation of a perceptual approach to interpersonal communication.

Linus H. Brandt

"A Critique of Assumptions Underlying
the Study of Communication in Conflict"
Leonard C. Hawes and David H. Smith
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 59(1973), 423-435.

The intent of this study was to examine several assumptions--usually present and accepted--in the study of communication in conflict, which undoubtedly distort results. The authors chose to examine three key questions whose answers reveal some of these assumptions.

The first key question was "What is the term conflict to mean?" The authors sorted out the answers to this conceptual-definitional question along three dimensions, goal, strategy, and time, with each dimension being a bevalued continuum. For example, with regard to goals, some individuals are said to have goals that direct and thereby explain their behavior. These goals would be considered prospective. The key to prospective definitions is that goals direct behavior. If goals are in conflict then, so must be the subsequent behaviors. Far fewer definitions of conflict are retrospective in nature. Those who advocate this definition argue that although individuals have goals, these goals do not direct or explain actions. They become meaningful only after they are manifested in behavior. In practice, the authors note, a choice between these two perspectives need not be made. Rather, some midpoint on the continuum which involves elements of both will be taken. However, these differing positions on the goal dimension create fundamental differences which lead to the differences in research results.

The strategy dimension centers on the question of resolution versus management or maintenance of conflict. Normative theories of conflict usually assume that the only good conflict is a resolved conflict. On the other end of the continuum, some contend that organizations insisting on concensus decision-making and resolution suppress valuable information necessary for adapting to changing environments.

Closely related to this dimension is the time dimension, which sets out the episodic or continuous nature of conflict processes. Here again, while some view conflict as a temporary disruption of the system, many empirically oriented political scientists assume that world conflict is inevitable and that peace is nothing more than an idealized hypothetical state.

The second key question was an operational-procedural question. "How is conflict to be operationalized?" Again, the authors examined the assumptions along specified dimensions: a rules dimension (methods of cooperation and competition to achieve the task being the two polar values); an act dimension (expresses the type and amount of communication required by the task); the outcome dimension (refers to the end state of the task and distinguishes between correct and creative outcomes); the abstractness dimension (sets out the relative degree of abstractness or concreteness of the task); and the salience dimension (refers to the degree of involvement the participants have in the task). These five dimensions reveal the assumptions about conflict in answers to the operational-procedural question.

The third key question which reveals assumptions about conflict is the theoretical-model question. The critical dimension here is the system-type. "What framework will be used to generate hypotheses and display data? What model will be used to analyze findings?" The system-types vary between relatively closed and relatively open conceptions of conflict. Much of the behavioral research on conflict has used game theory terminology, settings, and designs. Such research has received criticism, however, because communication--thought of as verbal and nonverbal interaction--plays an insignificant role in closed conflict systems.

The authors centered on two major assumptions for serious re-examination.

1. The role of communication in conflict is such that as the amount of communication increases, decisions are more likely to be reached; or, the more we talk the more we agree.

This assumption is rooted in the belief that conflict is really a manifestation of insufficient or ineffective communication. However, study results are conflicting. Vroom, Grant, and Cotten's study supported the basic idea that verbal communication during the generation phase of the process was dysfunctional. In their study, the verbal communication groups produced a smaller number of different solutions, fewer high quality solutions and a smaller number of different kinds of solutions than groups in the no-communication treatment. Subsequent studies examined brought to light so many new variables that the authors could not conclude that "the more we talk the more we agree".

2. The role of communication in conflict is such that the expression of conflicting interests interferes with making decisions; or, disagreeing makes it harder to agree.

In other words, interpersonal conflict hinders group decision-making. Once again, closer examination produced results to the contrary. Bower found that conflict groups under the majority wins decision and took no more time to reach decisions than did the cooperative groups. He concluded that conflict in bargaining situations played at least a dual role in the group decision process. Conflict resulted in superior search and analysis activities but tended to obstruct group choice activity. Here again, the results of studies examined did not allow the naive acceptance of the direct relationship stated in the assumption.

The authors cautioned against posing and examining additional assumptions about communication and conflict, pointing out that the studies examined indicated more complex relationships. The role of communication in conflict will not yield to easy and simple description largely because differing entering assumptions lead to different theoretical stances and different research results. Studying the role of communication, then, may prove the most productive strategy for understanding the nature of conflict itself. For such a strategy to be successful, the authors urge that future research be based on a self-conscious awareness of the assumptions expressed as answers to the three key questions provided in their study and recommend those answers as a useful frame for the planning of study and the comparison of findings.

Theodessa Saffer

"Happily Ever After and Other Relationship Styles:
Advice on Interpersonal Relations in Popular Magazines, 1951-1973"
Virginia Kidd
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 61(1975), 31-39.

Kidd examines the popular "rhetorical visions" presented in magazines that deal with advice on interpersonal relationships. The author analyzed popular journals (those with over 1 million circulation listed in the Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature) covering a 20 year period from 1951-1973. The study traced the development of trends of thought for developing formulas concerning human relations. The contention was that these articles would be an indicator of popular thought, although not necessarily actual beliefs of the readers, and that this popular rhetoric might influence the behavior of the reader.

Kidd found two major trends dominating the literature which she describes as Vision I and Vision II. Both Visions explain appropriate behavior and establish models. Vision I, prominent in the 50's and early 60's, emphasized set and unchanging standards for behavior. Roles were defined and rigid. Emphasis was on "togetherness" and sublimating self in favor of pleasing others.

Vision II developed with pressures of the 60's or changing standards. An emphasis was placed on human communications, "talking it out," and individualism rather than the "togetherness" of Vision I.

Both visions were over-simplified and emphasized the happy ending, frequently using a "ten steps to success" formula. Kidd felt that the impact of these articles was limited and defined by reaching a certain readership, largely women, and by the shortness of the articles in the magazine format. She concluded that the articles merely skimmed the surface and lacked any in-depth analysis of interpersonal relationships in avoiding the negative aspects.

This descriptive research article is an example of studying a body of literature which reaches significant numbers of readers to determine trends of popular thought about appropriate behaviorial standards. The author did not determine the influence of the articles on the readership, but did analyze the literature for trends.

Karen S. Brown

"Family Communication"
Judy Hiller Goldberg and Alvin A. Goldberg
Western Speech Communication, 40(1976), 104-110.

Interest in family communication as a part of the speech communication curriculum is rapidly growing. Concern with the subject has been stimulated by the following developments in the field: (1) the attempt to identify the basic functions of speech communication, (2) the expansion of curricula in language acquisition and development, (3) the growing conviction that interpersonal and group communication should be studied in more permanent groups as well as in temporary classroom or laboratory situations, and (4) the desire to improve communication skills in informal as well as formal settings. The course outlined here was strongly influenced by various recommendations of the New Orleans Conference.

The central concern of the course is family communication processes. One particularly appropriate recommendation of the New Orleans Conference was to explore communication interactions in which the linkage between people involved is the primary focus. Thus, the course is approached from a systems theory viewpoint, stressing family relationships and how they are established, maintained, enhanced, or destroyed through communication. Some of the objectives of the course are:

1. To obtain a systematic understanding of communication in the nuclear family.
2. To become aware of the skills necessary for "healthy" family communication.
3. To understand the many modes of relating within the family.
4. To become acquainted with community resource personnel who are concerned with various aspects of family communication.

The lecture-discussion format is used. Each student must read and discuss at least one scholarly work on family communication in addition to two textbooks and required reading. A brief autobiographical account of their families submitted at mid-term is the basis for an analysis submitted at the end of the term. Also, the class is divided into three-person task forces which study a particular topic and present their findings toward the end of the term.

The main text is Virginia Satir's Peoplemaking, supplemented by Beulah Parker's A Mingled Yarn. Several other books are put on reserve. The course includes guest lecturers, films and videotape (an episode of "All in the Family").

There are eight units in the course. A definition of family communication is first, followed by an examination of the family as a rule-governed system. Third is a study of family communication networks. Next is a unit on modes of relating, covering who talks when and in what way. Unit five covers domination and submission. Communication rules, both explicit and implicit, are covered in unit six. Unit seven deals with family conflict, and unit eight covers blended and special families.

The course has wide appeal. It attracts students from many disciplines and from the community. Because the family provides a superb setting in which to apply communication principles, theories about communication can be tested here for wider application later. This course provides a good starting point for continued study in family communication processes.

The appeal of such a course seems fairly obvious. Although the course itself may not be readily available to the reader, the framework on which it is based is still certainly of interest. From the perspective of a student, the particular value of this article lies in the suggested materials used in the course, most of which are available for personal study. From the perspective of other speech communication departments, this presents the necessary outline for a potentially valuable addition to the curriculum.

David A. Bullock

"Conceptual Frontiers in the Study of Communication in Families: An Introduction to the Literature"
Arthur P. Bochner
Human Communication Research, 2(1976), 381-397.

More than 10,000 research studies of marriage and the family were published between 1965 and 1972 alone; however, a minority of these studies concerned themselves with communication in the family. This is astonishing when one thinks of the family as a small group or communications network, something that the field of Speech Communication has studied for years. Unfortunately, it is not astonishing to know that psychologists were interested in the effects of families and family communication in the 1950's and the disciplinary segregation was so great that psychologists, sociologists, and communicologists did not trade information.

With the communication field's growing interest in family communication and interaction, those tangent fields of study must be researched to find the information available on this subject and application of this information must be made to communication studies and interests. This article reflects the scattered and disconnected nature of information concerning the field of family interaction, but suggests the need for planning new research and reviewing old research. The focus of this new research in family communication should be on: (1) family power as the outcome of particular interactional configurations; (2) families as communication networks rather than groups; (3) how families set their own standards of behavior and evaluate those standards; (4) how many distinctive ways it is possible for the family to be "normal", adaptive information processing systems, and (5) in what ways specific interaction patterns relate to content themes around and about which families transact.

It was sometime during the 1950's that a significant number of psychotherapists began to break away from the dyadic psychiatric models then in use and began to use the family unit as a basis of investigation and therapy. This new psychiatric paradigm has produced an array of concepts which have proven worthwhile in the field of communications. One particular concept, "power" as an interactive particular, has become most important to the communications field; and while there are many problems to the scientific study of intrafamily power interfaces, there may be a very important avenue of investigation open if some reconceptualizations can be made.

This article gives the novice some important insights to the area of family therapy, and its beginnings. There is a particularly good listing of basic books to be used in the further exploration of family interaction by the beginner.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

"Issues in Teaching Interpersonal Communication"
Barbara Lieb-Brilhart
Communication Education, 26(1977), 135-137.

Particularly important for teachers of interpersonal communication is the "back to the basics" movement currently prevalent in the schools across the country. In the swing of the pendulum back to primary emphasis on basic reading and writing skills, the danger exists that interpersonal communication will be eliminated from course offerings. A major factor confronting this discipline is the matter of public ignorance of both its purpose and its value. If speech educators are to promote interpersonal communication as also "basic," three problems must be overcome.

The first obstacle is a matter of definition of the scope of interpersonal communication. Does it include one-to-group speaking and small group contexts? Two current texts in the field support this view. They present such concepts as communication choices and interrelationships among speakers, listeners, and messages. These are important concepts that must be emphasized in describing the curricular "territory" of interpersonal communication.

A second hurdle that must be cleared is the role of interpersonal communication in the curriculum. There is public confusion between the terms "interpersonal relationships" and "interpersonal communication." To insure its inclusion in the current curriculums across the country, its functional value, transferable to everyday situations, must be clarified. Five "families" of communication functions which have been reported are (1) controlling, (2) feeling, (3) informing, (4) ritualizing, and (5) imagining. These are viewed from a developmental perspective from which age-related curricular goals might be generated.

Finally, the problem of assessment of interpersonal communication hounds the discipline. Because instruments for such measurement are so widely scattered in the literature, the SCA module of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills has commissioned a state-of-the-art paper which will present a compilation of current procedures and instruments for assessing functional communication competence.

Professionally, the Educational Policies Board of the Speech Communication Association is working to alleviate the problem. A task force has been formed to establish recommendations for minimal competencies in communication for high school graduates. Other task forces are promoting in-service training in the area of interpersonal communication for teachers both in and out of the field. Further, the SCA and the NCTE Commission on the English Curriculum are collaborating on setting curriculum goals in the communication arts and sciences.

This article really deals with the issues at stake in the current controversies over interpersonal communication. It makes clear not only how much really is at stake and why, but what is currently being done about it. Unless and until interpersonal communication is established as basic to a good education, every student with any interest in it should be aware of these issues.

David A. Bullock

"An Interpersonal Approach to the Basic Course"
John Stewart
Speech Teacher, 32(1973), 7-14

John Stewart gives three concepts of interpersonal communications that are the basis of the University of Washington's basic course in that subject. As a preface to the listing of concepts, he notes what interpersonal communication is not.

Interpersonal communication is not a course in delivery, evidence, outlining, or audience analysis. These concepts are covered in the public speaking courses. The course is not purely a "skills" approach to the subject, the course includes readings, written analysis, evaulations, and examinations. Nor is the course a "misguided encounter group",..."the approach does require the teacher to commit himself as a human being to the students, but does not require him to be a clinical psychologists."

The first concept to the interpersonal communication course is that human communication is a "transaction". This concept of transaction implies that classes in interpersonal communication stress the meaning of the communication instead of the message. Transaction and meaning also places great importance on what the communicator "construes" the "meaning" to be, such as what we as communicators believe about ourselves, what we believe about those to which we communicate, and what we believe our communication means to the person we are communicating to.

The second concept of this course is "listening", or more precisely, "non-evaluative listening". The concept of listening objectively to what is being said, and not "reading-in" what we want the communicator to be saying or what we fear the communicator may mean by what he or she says, is of a basic importance in this course.

Finally, relationship is a basic concept in the University of Washington course. Not only the relationships of speaker and listener, but the relationships between the speaker and the words that he or she chooses, and the relationship between the words and the relationship which these words shape between the speaker and listener.

This journal article deals with the very important transactional interpersonal communication concepts found in today's interpersonal communication courses. It would be very valuable to any student to understand this concept if he or she is going to deal with interpersonal communication on any level of education of everyday life.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

"Interpersonal Competence:
Rationale, Philosophy and Implementation
of a Conceptual Framework"
Arthur Bochner and Clifford Kelly
Speech Teacher, 23(1974), 279-301

There is considerable agreement among speech communication teachers that students should learn about, experience, and modify their interpersonal communication skills. However, the question of what skills should be focused on, and how proficiency can be measured, are persistently raised. The purpose of this paper was to present an instructional framework based on the concept of interpersonal competence for the purpose of organizing teaching and research in interpersonal communication.

A review of existing social conditions suggested the social climate is characterized by dramatic change in which traditional values and needs interact and conflict with new, more urgent, and less stable values. It was argued that the present social conditions mitigate against effective human interaction.

Improving interpersonal competence was suggested as a means of minimizing the detrimental effects of the social condition. It was suggested that interpersonal competence can be defined by the following three criteria: 1) ability to formulate and achieve objectives; 2) ability to collaborate effectively with others; and 3) ability to adapt appropriately to situational or environmental variations.

Five basic skills were identified which enable persons to meet the interpersonal competence criteria. The following skills comprised the proposed behavioral framework for instruction: empathic communication, descriptiveness, self disclosure, owning feelings and thoughts, and behavioral flexibility. Five instructional strategies for teaching these skills were discussed in terms of their value for cognitive or experiential learning and the extent to which the learner is responsible for his learning. These included: lectures, interpersonal laboratories, executive planning sessions, readings and examinations. Self-report ratings, peer-peer ratings and observer ratings were suggested as methods to directly assess interpersonal communication in the classroom.

Bochner and Kelly's article addresses the problem of evaluating learning in the interpersonal communication classroom. Concrete suggestions for the interpersonal teaching-learning process are proposed in terms of teaching strategies and methods of evaluating directly observable communication behaviors. These suggestions are discussed in relation to the proposed objective of interpersonal competence.

Donna Jensen

"Can Students Apply Interpersonal Theory?"
Thomas Tortoriello and Lynn Phelps
Today's Speech, 23(1975), 45-49

This essay examines the relationship between students performance on cognitive examinations and their ability to identify the most appropriate interpersonal strategy for a given situation. It will first look at the reasons people question cognitive examinations, some alternative methods of evaluating the learning of interpersonal communication, and finally explain the results of an instrument given to 1,200 subjects at Miami University which attempts to examine the previously mentioned relationship.

Many instructors feel they can not measure interpersonal learning because it is much too personal. Even though Robert Ebel states that all education can be measured, instructors point to the fact, in a given class, there are usually between 12 and 15 dyads or five to seven small groups simultaneously working on a task. This makes observation and evaluation of any one individual very difficult. The object in most interpersonal exercises is to engage the students in new behaviors designed to improve their interpersonal effectiveness. Fundamental to this process is the tentative nature of the situation. Bochner and Kelly feel that cognitive examinations are a negative link to interpersonal growth. Many students feel that this type of exam requires memory of the textbook, and does not allow them to demonstrate an application of the materials in a real life situation.

There are several alternatives to cognitive exams. One method is the observer ratings which are limited by time, money and a possible disruption to a class. Another alternative is the student evaluation of peers. This however, is also limited in that students are being evaluated by unclear criteria and getting feedback from an indirect or ambiguous method. A third method is for the students to self report. Often this method is used with one of the previously mentioned alternatives. The student is asked to assess his interpersonal development over a period of time. A fundamental problem with this method, aside from the honesty factor, is that within the same class there may be numerous standards of comparisons. Some students might describe their interactions with parents or friends, while others may merely use classroom interactions.

A fourth alternative is to give the students the opportunity to identify the most appropriate interpersonal strategy for a given situation. An example which calls for not only a definition of terms but also an understanding of their application is given. The answer would be the most appropriate course of action according to theory. This type of test was given to the basic Interpersonal Communication course at Miami University. The class used Patton and Giffin's Interpersonal Communication: Basic Text and Readings. The practical application instrument had 12 paragraphs followed by five questions along with a cognitive exam which contained between 75 to 85 questions. The correlation between the two, a .4677 to .3791 suggests several possibilities. The course may not have been teaching skills, or students may not become better communicators by taking this basic course. Another possibility is the course's failure to teach the students how to apply the theortical constructions to a real world. This experiment does

point to a need for more research. What are the correlations between the student's cognitive knowledge and his ability to transfer that knowledge to behavioral change? Further research should also tell us if there is a relationship between understanding interpersonal theory and the ability to communicate effectively. Finally additional research should test the underlying assumptions concerning interpersonal courses: students understand theory, and that they internalize theory and are able to apply theory to behavior.

The reader will find in this essay reasons instructors give for their feeling of being hampered in evaluating interpersonal communication. Also contained is a description of some alternatives to cognitive examinations and a description of the method and the results of an experiment which tested the students by a cognitive exam and an application instrument, asking them to apply theory to real life situations. Finally there are questions for further research which would aid anyone who is considering doing an experiment in the area of interpersonal communication evaluations. For anyone who is teaching or planning on teaching such a course this would aid in your planned evaluations for the students.

Carla Deckert

Rhetorical Theory and Criticism

This collection deals with several self-critical analyses of the conduct of rhetorical criticism followed by prognoses for the future. The middle section holds two resourse abstracts giving the reader a valuable list of references for any serious scholar in this area. Of particular significance are the final fine abstracts, which taken together, offer an exciting and richly rewarding future for the rhetorical theoretician and critic.

Karlyn Kohrs Campbell, "Criticism: Ephemeral and Enduring."
Carroll C. Arnold, "Rhetorical and Communication Studies: Two Worlds or One?"
Barnet Baskerville, "Must We All Be 'Rhetorical Critics'?"
Jerry Hendrix (Chairman), Waldo W. Braden, Ralph T. Eubanks, Wayne C. Minnick, and Donald E. Williams, "Rhetorical Criticism: Prognoses for the Seventies--A Symposium."
Barnet Baskerville, "Rhetorical Criticism, 1971: Retrospect, Prospect, Introspect."
Robert L. Scott, "On Viewing Rhetoric as Epistemic: Ten Years Later."
James Chesebro and Caroline Hamsher, "Contemporary Rhetorical Theory and Criticism: Dimensions of the New Rhetoric."
Roderick Hart, "Theory-Building and Rhetorical Criticism: An Informal Statement of Opinion."
Paul R. Corts, "I.A. Richards on Rhetoric and Criticism."
John F. Wilson, "Six Rhetorics for Perennial Study."
Charles W. Lomas, "Resources for the History and Criticism of Public Address."
David Swanson, "The New Politics Meets the Old Rhetoric: New Directions in Campaign Communication Research."
David M. Berg, "Rhetoric, Reality, and Mass Media."
James W. Chesebro, "Political Communication."
Judith S. Trent, "A Synthesis of Methodologies Used In Studying Political Communication."
Robert S. Cathcart, "New Approaches to the Study of Movements: Defining Movements Rhetorically."

"Criticism: Ephemeral and Enduring"
Karlyn Kohrs Campbell
Speech Teacher, 23(1974), 9-14

The purpose of this article was to delineate two relatively distinct functions of rhetorical criticism as defined by two different types of criticism: social and academic.

It was argued that the speech discipline has failed to produce a significant body of criticism which fulfills both social and professional objectives. This failure was traced to the ways in which both the objects and objectives of criticism have been defined and to a confusion between critical acts serving social functions and critical acts capable of making significant contributions to rhetorical theory.

Traditionally, rhetorical critics have viewed their task as one of examining individual oral works from a single source in relation to an immediate audience and of explaining their success in producing instrumental effects through imparting ideas. It was suggested that the analysis and evaluation of such acts serves a vital function for society, but that the criticism is ephemeral, i.e., without enduring historical or rhetorical significance.

The social function of such criticism is to raise issues and encourage public discussion. consequently, the author argued that rhetorical acts appropriate for social criticism must be expanded to include all contemporary acts that influence attitudes, such as literature, cinema, television, advertising, etc. This kind of ephemeral criticism belongs in the mass media and not in the professional literature, as the audience it needs to reach is the general public.

On the other hand, academic criticism can make an enduring contribution to the discipline whether or not the acts it examines are ephemeral or enduring, oral or written, single events or movements. What must be specified are the factors that constitute critical excellence and the critical outcomes or objectives that contribute to rhetorical theory.

The most economical and forceful method for specifying significant outcomes and describing critical excellence is the examination of masterpieces or touchstones of criticism. As exemplars, Kenneth Burke's essay on Mein Kampf, Richard Hofstadter's essay on the paranoid style in American political rhetoric, and Edwin Black's critiques of the Coatesville Address are cited. It was suggested that these works transcended the specifics of the rhetorical act to become illustrations or means through which the nature of symbolic processes were understood. Rhetorical theory deals with symbolic processes that are inherent in the human condition and recur at different times, in different places, and in response to different issues.

It was argued that distinctions of emphasis must be made between the two types of criticism. Both functions are vital and both forms of criticism need to be recognized. Without clarifying the distinction, however, the danger exists that neither function will be fulfilled.

Campbell's article addresses the controversy occurring in the speech discipline over what the focus of rhetorical criticism should be. The approach outlined combines the approach of those who consider theory building to be of primary importance and those who recognize the social implications of contemporary criticism. Campbell's contribution was to recognize the importance of pursuing both of these functions, as well as the need for distinguishing between them.

Donna Jensen

"Rhetorical and Communication Studies:
Two Worlds or One?"
Carroll C. Arnold
Western Speech Journal, 36(1972), 75-81.

The thesis of the article is ". . . the tendency to say that rhetorical scholars and communication scholars live in separate worlds is the consequence of simply paying too much attention to methodologies and too little attention to how we are conceptualizing the ultimate stuff being studied and how we are building toward ultimate theories about that stuff we partly share." The article was adapted from an address made in 1971 when a discussion was presented regarding The National Developmental Project on Rhetoric calling for broadening the scope of rhetorical criticism. They were advocating the enclusion of all areas of communication that might alter social attitudes and encouraging a lack of thinking of rhetoric as communicative process found only in public speeches.

To understand the thesis it is important to look at the definitions of rhetorical studies and communication studies. Rhetorical studies are defined by the author as being concerned with communication that alters the perception of reality. The term communication studies has come about because of a need to recognize that not all communication aims at altering perceptions of reality intentionally. By linkage here it is obvious that both areas are concerned with human communication and it would appear that communication studies have the larger scope and should, semantically, include rhetorical studies; but the two-world view exists and leads to separation of thinking about research done by each group. Each becomes so involved with defending the methodologies that each looses sight of the truth being sought. Study of the two methods reveal that there are no major theoretical differences but rather a difference in semantics which stems from each group's arrogance about method. Both are actually starting from the same given premises about communication processes.

Rhetorical and communication researchers have become so concerned with defense of the style of research that they are forgetting to evaluate the importance of that which is being studied. Because of this concern researchers are borrowing methods and premises rather than being creative and concerned with value of research.

In order to understand the article a student must first have a knowledge of the definition of and difference between rhetorical studies and communication studies. Once a student has such knowledge, the article makes an excellent point about an inherent problem of "rivalry" in the communication field. Unfortunately, the article is still relevant in the late 1970's.

Jeanette McDaniel

"Must We All Be 'Rhetorical Critics'?"
Barnet Baskerville
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 63(April, 1977), 107-116.

There seems to be a great rift between those who would include the "rhetorical historian" in the brotherhood of "rhetorical critics", and those who would not. It goes without saying that all scholarly research and writing must be "critical" in tone and must employ critical methodology. However, criticism as a literary genre focuses upon the art of the maker, it has as its end interpretation, appreciation, elucidation, appraisal of the work of art it deals with. History, on the other hand, furnishes a record which in this case a sociates works of art with the age in which it is produced. In the art of rhetoric both areas are of equal importance, or would seem to be to this author. The critic who has the greatest understanding of the history of rhetoric will naturally be the best equiped to discern the quality of individual works because of his or her knowledge of the art. Moreover, given the practical nature of rhetorical discourse, its close relationship to the audience and the situation, it is inevitable that "history" will often constitute the basis and the primary portion of rhetorical criticism.

Those who are in the field of rhetorical criticism, therefore, should not feel that the rhetorical historian is not a major part of the field. Rather, instead of viewing the historian as an unwanted or unneeded tangetial to the rhetorical critic, the rhetorical historian should be viewed as a fellow scholar and as a helpmate in the study of the art of rhetoric. It is suggested that indispensible as criticism is, and despite the remarkable success during the last decade in achieving greater artistry and sophistication in our critical writing, criticism, as it becomes more technical, becomes more parochial in its appeal; its consumers are likely to be other critics, usually in the same academic enclave. It is the link with the rest of the academia which should be utmost in the academic's mind when such a question of inclusion or exclusion arrises.

Dr. Baskerville's rather lengthy and obtuse article may allow some insight into the political nature of this question. The question itself is one which might be a long and difficult problem to solve in many universities.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

"Rhetorical Criticism: Prognoses for
the Seventies--A Symposium"
Jerry Hendrix (Chairman), Waldo W. Braden,
Ralph T. Eubanks, Wayne C. Minnick, and
Donald E. Williams
The Southern Speech Journal, 36(1970), 101-116.

In 1970, five scholars participated in a panel discussion which centered around the future of rhetorical criticism in the seventies. The panel was heard at the Southern Speech Convention at Winston-Salem. The purpose of this article is to present the results of that meeting.

Hendrix, the initial speaker, indicated that he felt the seventies would see a greater fragmentation or specialization of rhetorical studies. Now that rhetorical criticism holds a secure place among disciplines, the boundaries in selection of critical objects and critical methods should continue to disappear, allowing greater imagination and creativity in framing revealing critical questions. In fact, Hendrix was certain that the critic of the seventies would not necessarily relate his criticism to rhetorical theory at all. The new rhetorical critic may well be more concerned with what the speech says about man and his times.

Braden also predicted a departure from rigid formulas and attempted to define the perimeters of rhetorical study. He felt that the movement from the speaker's intent to ultimate effect was all clearly the territory of the rhetorical researcher. The researcher no longer faces a simple choice between substance or process. He may examine any aspect of rhetoric minutely, as long as he attempts to relate it to the total rhetorical movement.

Blind devotion to Pragmatism has caused problems for the rhetorical critic in the past, and Eubanks feels that the challenge of the seventies will be to work out and put to use a worthy stipulative definition of rhetorical criticism--"a definition that will enable us to make our own contribution to the renewal of our society's flagging traditions of wisdom and civility".

Minnick is concerned that the liberation from old structures (through experimentally and empirically derived models of the communication process) might enclose rhetorical critics of the seventies in a new prison. Minnick does not feel that the critic must be confined to the study of spoken communication, but that if he studies non-rhetorical forms of communication (folk song, motion pictures, works of literature) he should approach them with the purpose of better understanding of how speech communication influences, and is influenced, by human behavior. His plea is for finer and finer analysis of the rhetorical act so that more discrete judgments about the multiplicity of factors that comprise a single instance of communication can be made.

Williams believes that "The rhetorical critic justifies his existence as a scholar in his own right only if he establishes scholarly individuality." There are many scholars attracted to the study of speaking and listening activities of human beings. The sociologist can report information about how men rely on speech in order to forge and to perpetuate behavioral patterns among people. The historian can analyze man's speaking efforts to effect societal change, or to preclude change.

The rhetorician can contextualize speech within the scene in which it lived; describing in detail "a context of noncommunication". While all of these scholars address themselves to worthwhile considerations of the interesting phenomenon, oral communication, all of them are focusing on the speaking-listening act, and Williams wonders if they are truly critics. He feels that criticism has its own distinct identification which should envelope the concept of ought-ness. This involves qualitative judgment grounded in considered standards for performance. Therefore, devising appropriate standards by which efforts to communicate through speech can be equitably appraised, developing understanding of the rhetorical operation of the speaker's mind, and determining the degree of correlation between the two findings mark the unique province of the rhetorical critic. Williams suggests that the rhetorical critic becomes significant when he is respected as a judge.

Though each speaker expressed a slightly different viewpoint, all seemed to agree that rhetorical criticism had been established as a separate discipline and that the seventies would see this discipline advancing along less traditional lines. In the security of its relatively new place in the scholarly world, rhetorical criticism will have the freedom to explore unlimited aspects of communication. All of the speakers presented optimistic predictions for the field of rhetorical criticism in the 1970's.

Theodessa Saffer

"Rhetorical Criticism, 1971: Retrospect, Prospect, Introspect"
Barnet Baskerville
Southern Speech-Communication Journal, 37(1970), 113-124.

The purpose of the article is to provide an assessment of rhetorical criticism in 1971. The article is organized around two sections: (1) discernible tendencies; and (2) function of criticism. In the first section, the question of where rhetorical criticism has advanced to by 1971 is addressed. Rhetoric in the contemporary senses owns a more expansive horizen than rhetoric in the traditional sense. Traditional rhetoric focuses on human discourse where contemporary rhetoric focuses on human behavior. Traditional criticism employs a few basic methodologies exposes the contemporary critic's infatuation with "how to do" rhetorical criticism rather than doing rhetorical criticism.

The evaluation of contemporary critics leads into the second section which considers the function of rhetorical criticism. One facet of the function of criticism is to provide insight into a speech which will enrich the consumer's appreciation and understanding of the speech. A second facet of the purpose of criticism is to provide a judicial function in evaluation of the speech. Too often the untrained critic becomes a "hanging" judge for the speech and the speaker alike. The trained critic is able to evaluate a rhetorical method and to discriminate among values. Additionally, the question of separation of criticism and pedology is addressed. Criticism and pedology are separate entities that can interact and stimulate one another but each has a distinct function.

The whole article reflects a back-to-the-basics in rhetorical criticism.

The value of the article is that it provides the reader with a glimpse of rhetorical criticism and the state of the art in 1971.

Linus H. Brandt

"On Viewing Rhetoric as Epistemic: Ten Years Later"
Robert L. Scott
Central States Speech Journal, 27(1976), 258-266.

The purpose of this paper was to examine rhetoric ten years after the original paper proposing it an epistemic view. Rhetoric deals with one's actions and thoughts in a social context aiming at knowledge that is social and ethical. Three questions which this paper will deal with are: Is there one way of knowing or many? What sort of knowing does rhetoric strive to achieve? Is rhetorical relativism vicious?

There are many ways of knowing which makes it important to understand rhetoric as a way, not as the way, of knowing. However these views exist as a plurality not as a hierarchical structure.

Rhetoric seeks to understand how human action is decisive. One's traditions are instrumental in one's actions and help to continue or extend a culture. Understanding these actions helps us know. By "knowing" the sense of "from-the-outside-in" takes place. Knowledge is looked at as an outside point that brings one into a relationship with his world. "Understanding" means "from-the-inside-out" which takes human and personal capacity to embrace the world outside. Meaning is created rather than found.

Rhetoric seeks to know what is meant to persuade and be persuaded. One should grasp his place in the social order through understanding rhetoric.

Rhetoric is not relatively vicious. There are two dimensions of rhetorical relativism, the dimension that is among societies and the dimension that is within society. Members of a social order must examine the forces and norms of their community and be able to recognize traditions, before they can understand human behavior or its meaning.

In 1967, rhetoric as epistemic entailed the values of tolerance, will and responsibility. These values still exist if one is to understand social reality. Rhetoric must be viewed as a potential of human understanding of the human condition, before it may become a definite field of scientific inquiry.

The reader will discover why rhetoric should be viewed as epistemic. Perhaps reading the first article will aid the reader in understanding Scott's position.

Carla Deckert

"Contemporary Rhetorical Theory and Criticism:
Dimensions of the New Rhetoric"
James Chesebro and Caroline Hamsher
Speech Monographs, 42(1975), 311-334.

This essay examines contemporary rhetorical theory and criticism using a three fold analysis. First, the common features of selected contemporary rhetorical criticisms are given. Second, a set of theoretical propositions are offered. Finally, the conclusion is drawn that "contemporary rhetorical theory and criticism is distinct" from Aristotelian Theory and Modern Theory.

A common approach to rhetorical theory and criticism is found in the following: Black's "The Second Persona," Burke's "The Rhetoric of Hitler's 'Battle'," Campbell's "The Rhetoric of Women's Liberation: An Oxymoron," Griffin's "The Rhetorical Structure of the 'New Left' Movement: Part I," Hofstadter's "The Paranoid Style in American Politics," and Burgess's "The Rhetoric of Black Power: A Moral Demand?". The characteristics of these approaches are that each use a message-centered format. The message is defined as the interaction of two variables, the underlying principles or assumptions in the discourse and the manner or form the discourse takes. They focus on values orientation of the group or society which they study and what effects the message had upon it. Contemporary rhetoricians also use a gestalt approach which states that factors such as physical, psychological, sociological, or others which affect human action can not be examined or perceived separately. Usually two separate gestalts are presented: one for the established society and an alternative group, the one being written about. The final common characteristic is that each author trys to offer a view of human behavior from a rhetorical assessment. The contemporary rhetorician is not identified with what is being examined, but how the behavior is assessed.

Four propositions which provide the basis for the principles of contemporary rhetoric are presented. The first is that contemporary critics offer a system-centered genre of symbolic action. This emphasizes the movement as a whole or uses a number of speakers to different audiences as its basis for drawing conclusions. The movement examination provides the common characteristics. There are two ways of studying movements. The first is to look upon look at circumstances and events at a given period of time and assume the rhetorical strategies grow out of this system. Griffin used this historical method. Simons, on the other hand, used a sociological approach which assumes that rhetorical strategies grow out of the roles adopted by the leaders. The movement centered genre differs from the Aristotelian and modern rhetoric, in that they each used speaker-centered approaches. Those being informative, perusasive, and entertainment genres.

The second proposition states that rhetorical critics examine communication axiologically. Eubanks, Baker, and Campbell all state that rhetorical genres should be defined by the common principles underlying the messages. Members of a communication system are united and defined by what they say and the values they share. These are revealed by axiological analysis of the persuasive messages by the rhetoricians.

Proposition three states that rhetorical critics may examine communication strategically. Contemporary critics presume that rhetorical genres are equated to communication systems, common principles and strategies are employed to conceive, identify and define this system and once the system is defined it functions as a base for explaination and understanding human action.

The final proposition states that rehtorical critics may examine communication transactionally. Causation in a transactional view assumes that objects which participate in motion are not separate but are components of that system and a critic must describe the entire communication system as a process.

Ehninger states a distinction does exist between the three schools of rhetorical theory and criticism. Aristotelian theory is grammatical and is concerned with the syntax of speech. Modern theory is pragmatic and emphasizes audience analysis as to the basis for constructing speech. Finally contemporary theory is based on a complex system that views rhetoric as an "instrument for understanding and improving human relations." Even though this school is recent it is equal to Aristotelian or modern in the power to criticize rhetoric.

This article provides an understanding of the underlying principles (along with an extensive bibliography for each proposition offered), and uses of contemporary rhetorical theory. It also provides numerous examples of where this theory is being used and the bibliographical references for each. This article does require a certain amount of time for understanding, a simple reading of it will not be enough to understand contemporary rhetorical theory and criticism.

Carla Deckert

"Theory-Building and Rhetorical Criticism:
An Informal Statement of Opinion"
Roderick Hart
Central States Speech Journal, 27(1976), 70-77

The position taken in this paper was that future rhetorical criticism should be concerned with questions and answers which lead to the development of predictive theoretical statements about human persuasion. It was suggested that previous rhetorical studies were lacking in such an effort.

The first major argument advanced was that a pronounced concern for theory could redirect typical approaches to rhetorical criticism. Specifically, it was suggested that the field of inquiry be delimited to more traditional rhetorical phenomenon and that selection of rhetorical events for study be focused on more commonplace and even mundane investigations. The rhetoric at a meeting of a local plumbers' union is cited as an example. Refinement of analytical tools and discussions of their development in published articles was encouraged to enable the development of valid and reliable methodologies. It was also suggested that rhetorical critics interpret their findings in the light of generic qualities of the rhetoric.

The second major point argued in the article was that properly conceived generic criticism must, by its nature, fully respond to the call for theory-building. Three aproaches to rhetorical genres were identified: space-time setting, rhetorical purpose, and ideational thrust. It was suggested that these three approaches are limited in their ability to reflect the complexity of phenomena constitutive of rhetorical transactions. It was also aruged that it is insufficient to include only situational variables as well as the characteristics of messages, becuase the entire system of rhetorical elements treated as a whole constitutes a rhetorical genre. It is the studying of systems as rhetorical genres that allow the building of theory about rhetoric in general.

The third argument was that rhetorical critics should encourage the work of descriptivists as well as judgmentalists. Four critical options were identified impressionistic, analytic, synthetic and judicial. It was suggested that impressionistic criticism is data-poor and reflects the sentiments of the critic, and that analytic criticism focuses on the message to the neglect of personal and situational factors. Judicial criticism was defined as criticism which involves evaluating a rhetorical transaction against some standard. It was suggested that many scholars have assumed that all criticism must involve the rendering of informal judgments and that many times, the judgments reflect premature critical evaluations. The synthetic approach, which centers on the gathering and digesting of rhetorical facts, was proposed. It was suggested that such an approach is more likely to illuminate certain characteristics of situations and messages which are distinctly rhetorical.

Hart's article provides an interesting perspective on problems with rhetorical criticism as it is currently practiced. Suggestions for a more theoretically-oriented approach are provided.

Donna Jensen

"I.A. Richards on Rhetoric and Criticism"
Paul R. Corts
The Southern Speech Journal, 36(1970), 115-126.

Corts suggests that a re-examination of the philosophy of Richards is in order. When Richards passed off the treatment of rhetoric by the ancients and contemporaries, he was not labeling them valueless treatises; he was merely labeling them valueless for the study of rhetoric in the twentieth century.

Richards claimed that persuasion, the central theme of traditional rhetoric, was "only one among the aims of discourse". He contends that there are two uses of language, the "symbolic" (or "scientific") and the "emotive" ("rhetorical"). He also believes that rhetoric "should be a study of misunderstanding and its remedies", and that with this definition in mind, the researcher should study meaning as conveyed in symbols, and the interactings of meaning units in discourse. This would shift the focus of attention from macroscopic considerations to microscopic investigation of the structures of the smallest discussable units of meaning--words. To this end, Richards used a thought-word-thing relationship. To better illustrate, he devised a triangular model. At the top of the triangle, "thought" indicates the realm of general experience, various "referents" (things) are perceived and the resultant impression is stored in the "thought" area. "Symbol" (words) is the smallest possible meaning unit and is drawn from the thought area. There is a definite relationship between the symbol and thought areas and between the referent and thought areas, but no direct relationship between the referent and the symbol. The over-simplification that the "word" is the "thing" is one of the major causes of misunderstanding. In communication, according to Richards, "experiences at the best, under the most favorable circumstances, can be but similar". Therefore, an enormous amount of common experience is needed if people are to communicate. More explicitly, Richards believes that communication is impossible without common experience.

Richards has devised a quadruplex illustrating his interpretation of the communication process which presents four functions of language. He considers these four functions--sense, feeling, tone, and intention--the "psychology of the speech situation". These same functions may also be applied to the audience, although he further describes the audience's role in a Comprehending Wheel which delineates seven comprehending activities. Richards does not merge his quadruplex or Comprehending Wheel with his general communication model, but he states that both of these aspects assist the functioning of the selector and developer which thus encompasses the total speech situation.

Richards feels that persuasion must be removed as the overriding concern of rhetoric and that understanding or comprehension must replace it. His system emphasizes precision of meaning, which will bring about understanding. All language should therefore be judged on the basis of its contribution to the primary goal of understanding. Rhetoric should study language as an attempt to promote understanding in human communication. Corts advocates a new look at this philosophy. Although Richards' analysis of the "speech situation" somwhat parallels traditional approaches, his models provide keen insight into the human communication process in a unique way and are probably his most valuable contribution.

Theodessa Saffer

"Six Rhetorics for Perennial Study"
John F. Wilson
Today's Speech, 19(1971), 49-54.

This article represents Wilson's response to his editor's request that he select sex or fewer books which would be basic to the understanding of Rhetorical Theory. Wilson chose the following, listed in order of their importance:

(1) A Grammar of Motives
A Rhetoric of Motives - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - Kenneth Burke

(2) The Philosophy of Rhetoric - - - - - - - - - - - I.A. Richards

(3) Public Speaking - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - James A. Winans

(4) Language in Thought and Action - - - - - - - - - S.I. Hayakawa

(5) The Uses of Argument - - - - - - - - - - - - - - Stephen E. Toulmin

(6) The New Rhetoric: A Treatise on Argument - - - Ch. Perelman and L. Olbrechts-Tyteca

The six works (counting the two Burke words as one) present comprehensive theories and have had a marked influence in the field.

The two Burke works present a philosophical construct of rhetoric which is heavily based on the classical writers. Rhetoric has, Burke claims, as its basic function the use of words by human agents to form attitudes or to induce actions in other human agents. This is done through identification. Motives arise from the divisiveness of society. Three levels of motives--rhetorical, symbolic, and grammatical--are discussed, and under the latter, Burke presents his famed pentad, or five-faceted structure for the analysis of human motivation. Using key terms from drama--act, scene, agent, agency, and purpose--his sytem has been labeled "dramatistic". Burke presents a very complicated philosophy with identification and motivation at its center and classical ideas at its base, all taking place within a dramatic setting.

How words work and how one arrives at their meanings is Richard's main focus. He sees all language as symbolic and would have us differentiate between referential and emotive functions of language. Though some may feel that Richards' view of rhetoric is too narrow, he forces us to distinguish labels and symbols from the things for which they stand.

Winans' Public Speaking, is the first book to introduce the psychology of attention as the basis for a system of rhetoric. He defined persuasion as the gaining and maintaing of fair, favorable and undivided attention. Winans also contributed ideas about delivery which have been re-written into many textbooks which have a major influence in today's oral rhetorical theory.

Hayakawa's work is based heavily on the ideas of Alfred Korzybski, but is more readable than the Korzybski books. Hayakawa deals with the importance of language and its connotative and denotative meanings in the active world. His work stresses the difficulties of clearly delineating meanings in order to build a society in which mutual trust makes increased cooperation possible.

Toulmin is authoritative in the area of argument. He sees logic as a comparative rather than formal analytic study and finds the traditional

structuring of the formal syllogism, with its major and minor premises, unsatisfactory to describe argument as it actually exists. His analysis and the resulting terminology have furnished a structural model for laying out rhetorical arguments for investigation and criticism. Through the presentation of a new system, Toulmin has discovered new and more practical uses for traditional logic.

The final choice has only lately been available in English, but has been influential in Europe since its publication in 1958. The French authors researched the field of rhetoric in an attempt to explain judicial processes. Argument, they claim, is audience-centered rather than form-centered. They have drawn upon classical principles, but their treatment of the nature and role of fact, truth, presumption, value, logic of argument, and the kinds of argument, produce a psychological cast that yields a new approach.

Wilson notes that all of his selections imply a classical grounding which proves that the roots of a subject are important to a full understanding of it. Bur even more revealing is the evidence in each work of the impact of psychological thought upon rhetorical theory during this century. In all six, the concern is with human behavior rather than with rhetoric as a literary product.

Theodessa Saffer

"Resources for the History
and Criticism of Public Address"
Charles W. Lomas
Today's Speech, 19(1971), 37-41.

The serious scholarly study of the history and criticism of public address really began less than fifty years ago. The trend in current studies is away from biographical and rhetorical analysis and toward studying rhetorical events as functional examples in the intellectual and social history of the period. This newer concept suggests that the function of the teacher of public address is to encourage students to examine the role of persuasive discourse in the dynamics of social, intellectual and political change. It also suggests that in a study of the history of public address, speeches should be considered with a knowledge of the social and historical settings in which they were produced. Twenty-three books were reviewed in the course of this search for useful resources for the history and criticism of public address.

Robert T. Oliver's History of Public Speaking in America has been a mainstay in courses in history and criticism of public address since its publication. Because most of the research from which he draws is the work of others, his book reflects the gaps in the research of members of the profession. His section on the pre-civil war era is the strongest, as much has been done in this period. Nothing is reported after 1914; very little deals with the rhetoric of agitation and political reform between 1880 and 1920; and nothing covers the radical speakers during the post civil war period. Still, there is no other book which begins to accomplish what this one does.

The third volume of the three volume work sponsored by the Speech Association of America, A History and Criticism of American Public Address, edited by Marie Hochmuth Nichols, does more to reveal the nature of rhetorical problems faced by the speakers than do the first two volumes of the set. Many of the essays in the third volume, perhaps due to the advantage of following the first two and benefiting by other works published later, recognize that one of the factors of creative criticism lies in devising a method particularly suited to the speaker being studied.

J. J. Auer's Antislavery and Disunion also shows greater variety of methods than do earlier volumes. In particular, four studies seem to deal primarily with a movement or with group characteristics, while seven others deal with events involving more than one speaker.

Waldo Braden's Oratory in the Old South helps fill the gap in Oliver's book. Nearly all of the essays in the book center on groups of speakers as they were concerned with single issues.

Turning to anthologies, in W. M. Parrish and Marie Hochmuth's American Speeches, two excellent essays preface the collection of texts. Parrish, in his essay, calls for critics to discover what the situation called for, what the speaker might have said, and the resources accessible to him. All texts are given in full or with deletions clearly noted.

Similarly, A. Craig Baird's American Public Addresses 1740-1952 gives citations of sources and background, though even more completely than found in Parrish and Hochmuth. Baird includes more speeches, and is probably the better of the two, if only one is to be chosen.

In terms of multiple volume anthologies, Marion Mills Miller's Great Debates in American History covers in fourteen volumes speeches and political writings dealing with important controversies from 1764 to 1913. On a similar theme, though more scholarly, is the two-volume The People Shall Judge compiled by the staff of Social Sciences I at the University of Chicago.

Some recent one volume anthologies, though narrow in scope, are more issue centered. These include Ernest Wrage and Barnet Baskerville, American Forum: Speeches on Historic Issues, 1788-1900, and the companion volume Contemporary Forum; Charles W. Lomas, Agitator in American Society; Arthur L. Smith, The Rhetoric of Black Revolution; Robert L. Scott add Wayne Brockriede, The Rhetoric of Black Power; Haig and Hamida Bosmajian, The Rhetoric of the Civil Rights Movement; and Paul Boase, The Rhetoric of Christian Socialism.

Books dealing with the art of rhetorical criticism are Lester Thonssen and A. Craig Baird, Speech Criticism; Edwin Black, Rhetorical Criticism; and Marie Hochmuth Nichols, Rhetoric and Criticism. Black and Nichols both call for a more innovative approach to criticism than the more traditional Thonssen and Baird model.

Those seeking to simplify criticism for beginners are Anthony Hillbruner in Critical Dimensions: The Art of Public Address Criticism and Robert Cathcart in Post Communication: Critical Analysis and Evaluation. Both books are short paperbacks best suited to undergraduate use.

The other three books mentioned were collections of speech texts, but not particularly recommended for the serious student of criticism. The value of the first twenty, however, should be fairly obvious. Whether planning a personal research project, a personal course of study, a course for undergraduate or graduates, or developing a departmental program, a list of the important books in the field is a necessity. The descriptions and evaluations given here make the list particularly useful, whatever purpose the reader may have in mind.

David A. Bullock

"The New Politics Meets the Old Rhetoric:
New Directions in Campaign Communication Research"
David Swanson
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 58(1972), 31-40.

Political campaign speaking has long been of interest to students of speech communication. The position of this essay was that the most productive investigation of the issues and methods of the new politics must be rooted in a reconceptualization of campaign communication and of the role of the communication researcher. The perspectives and limitations of voting behavior and campaign communication research were analyzed and new directions for research were suggested.

It was suggested that a "new politics" is effecting a fundamental transformation in the nature of American political campaigning. Three features of these new-style campaigns were identified: 1) the most effective campaign strategy is considered to be grounded in scientific theory and research; 2) extensive use of mass media and television particularly; and 3) the televised messages seem to deemphasize more traditional forms of appeal, such as the broadcast of a political speech by a candidate in favor of spot announcements.

It was argued that studies of campaign communication in the speech field have not been responsive to these changes in the communication methods and strategies of the new politics. It was suggested that speech studies have focused on oratory despite the fact that campaign speaking represents a relatively small part of a campaign's total communications program. It was noted that most comprehensive communication studies of campaigns have been conducted outside the speech discipline.

A second feature of speech communication studies of political campaigning which was discussed was the confusion and ambiguity in the derivation and application of standards of judgment. It was suggested that researchers have been descriptive and have avoided making evaluative judgments or they have offered essentially intuitive generalizations about the relative importance of campaign strategies. It was suggested that researchers must be able to examine the new politics with its multitude of formats and tactics and offer credible explanations for the effects of political messages and strategies.

Voting behavior research was also discussed and it was suggested that such studies are not communication-oriented and are paradigm-free, in that they are particularized and non-theoretical. As a result of the inability of either voting behavior or speech communication studies to focus on the comprehensive communication picture, it was concluded that knowledge is lacking of whether the communication methods of the new politics are any more successful than the old.

It was suggested that productive study in this area would require abandoning the political speech-making orientation in favor of a full-blown view of rhetoric in the campaign context, including such factors as strategy formulation, issue selection, image presentation, message format choice, medium, etc. The critic's first task would be to describe the broad strategies by which a campaign seeks to maximize its chances of electoral victory. To evaluate and judge these strategies, it was suggested that it is necessary to understand the American electorate and to focus on the voter's response to strategies.

It was argued that the critic's approach to particular strategies should be to examine the function of messages or tactics and to ascertain if those functions are successfully fulfilled. It was suggested that a broader level of analysis might involve evaluating the function to determine if it was essential to the campaign. It was argued that this approach would provide a better understanding of how political communication works and lead to objective, empirical investigations.

Swanson's article challenges communication researchers to be responsive to the changing trends in political communication. It suggests that campaign communication study might yield more knowledge if it were based on an expanded view of its subject, drew its critical standards from the voters themselves, and adopted a more sophisticated functional perspective in the analysis of campaign strategies.

Donna Jensen

"Rhetoric, Reality, and Mass Media"
David M. Berg
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 58(1972), 255-263.

The aim of the article is to propound the idea that mass media tends to magnify the focus of human perception on the flaws of society. Mass media plays an influential role in molding the nature of human beings' rhetorical utterings.

The article is divided into two major sections: (1) media and reality; and (2) reality and rhetoric.

Mass media, especially television, provides much of a person's view of the outside world. The individual does not control the pan of the media's camera, thus, the media controls what perception of reality the individual experiences. The nature of reality reporting by people who operate the media tends to fully express the imperfection of human life. There are two contributing factors to the flaw-ridden reality shaped by mass media. First, mass media not only reports events but they also create events to be reported. Second, mass media tends to focus upon overt and dramatic expressions that exist in society.

Mass media helps mold human beings' perception of reality. This situation influences the nature of contemporary rhetoric by those human beings. There appears to be two trends in the contemporary rhetoric of the American people: (1) an increase in verbal response to media events; and (2) a tendency for these responses to be of an aggressive and hostile nature.

A number of groups are aware of the potential of mass media to create events and happenings in society. Thus, if the media is to be used to communicate with society a group must attract the attention of the media. The most feasible manner in which to attract the attention of the media is to play upon its affinity for dramatic behavior and events. Thus, many groups are turning to physically overt behavior to obtain the attention of the media.

There are three interesting points to be thought about in relationship to media access. First, actions are more important than oral messages because of televisions bias toward pictures rather than words. Second, a certain group may express one message to attract the attention of the media while they express a second message to communicate their cause. And third, a person may express a message to obtain the attention of the media when in reality he/she may have a slightly different view on the situation. If a state of dissonance is engendered within the individual he/she could accept the position expressed to the media to relieve the dissonance. Thus, a resultant shift in beliefs and behaviors of that individual.

The value of this article is that it provides the reader with a good example of a contemporary rhetorical analysis. The article also expresses several significant statements about mass media in the American society.

Linus H. Brandt

"Political Communication"
James W. Chesebro
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 62(1976), 289-300

This article focuses on the direct and intimate relationship which exists between symbol using and politics. Chesebro points out the diversity of approaches to the study of political communication and offers a framework of five theoretical approaches which he identifies as the Machiavellian, iconic, ritualistic, confirmational, and dramatistic conceptions of political communication.

The Machiavellian approach argues that those holding power are conceived to be the dominant component in a political relationship by virtue of some special ability. In practice, this approach diminishes, if not completely dismisses, the import of symbols in political assessments. Political extremists are frequently viewed as employing Machiavellian rather than symbolic tactics to secure political dominance. The leader who uses this approach is probably excessively task-oriented and treats others as objects to be controlled rather than as individuals with whom he can develop a relationship. The Machiavellian agent must balance the conflicting demands on his position and on the movement he represents while molding the members within the movement. In order to accomplish this, the leader makes use of various symbolic strategies. The symbols used to convey these strategies are derived from the pre-existing talents, skills, and personality traits of the leaders. Chesebro contends therefore, that rhetoric is predominantly a byproduct of leaders employing Machiavellian tactics.

This approach, as a critical system, has generated negative response. For many, the Machiavellian approach fails to account for the complexities of change and control accounted for in communication models. It has, however, been used by critics to describe and indict political forces believed to have "gone wrong".

In contrast, the second or iconic approach, holds that symbols have an important role in politics. When symbols are narrowly conceived, they can be viewed as icons. Icons commonly assumed to possess both political and rhetorical impact, might include military parades, statues of heroes, and uniforms. In this context, a military junta's uniforms and guns may eliminate opposition without the actual use of physical force. Critics use this approach to explain inobvious rhetorical forces operating within a political system.

The ritualistic approach emphasizes the redundant and superficial nature of political acts. Citing as an example of this, the presidential campaigns every four years, Chesebro contends that they seldom alter substantive policies or reveal the policies likely to be executed thereafter. Nevertheless, the campaign ritual functions rhetorically insofar as it convinces voters that concrete actions will be a byproduct of the election outcome.

The iconic and ritualistic approach complement each other in that, the iconic approach identifies the kind of power relationship which exists between two components, and the ritualistic approach reveals the function of the power relationship.

The fourth approach, the confirmational approach, treats political communication as a means of confirming or disconfirming political institutions, agents, or policies. Because voter expression can effectively change the structure of governments, it has become an area of much study. Behavioral and experimental studies of political action by scholars of speech communication are frequently classified within the confirmational approach.

The final, or dramatistic, approach to political communication views politics as a totally symbolic construct. Such a symbolic conception of politics is based on a series of assumptions regarding the nature of reality, language, and the individual. Reality is cast as a formless, meaningless mass which must be organized and structured according to human needs. Each culture, through its various socialization agencies, provides its own set of means to satisfy these needs. Symbol learning and using, language acquisition, allows the individual to secure his needs. The symbol system may be the one tool which transcends the limits of cultural diversity. Thus the symbol system may ultimately provide the common features creating and sustaining the social and political community. Dramatists view symbols as the operational basis for understanding politics. Politics refers to the pursuit and exercise of power, but power refers to the relationship created, mediated, and altered by shared perceptions of both the dominant and the subordinate components who must share a common symbol system in order to communicate. A symbolic conception of power, as conceived by dramatists, does exist within political science.

Each of the five approaches offers a different interpretation of the relationship of symbols and politics, but the approaches are basically complementary. Chesebro views each approach as a "cluster" of studies, and thereby gives credence to defining the study of political communication as an academic pursuit. Some academicians feel that, though speech-communication may be a late entry, it has direct business with politics, and the resultant rhetoric could pass as political science, with the professors of it as political experts.

Theodessa Saffer

"A Synthesis of Methodologies Used In Studying Political Communication"
Judith S. Trent
Central States Speech Journal, 26(1975), 287-297.

This article presents a critical synthesis of methodologies used by speech communication scholars who have sought to examine political communication. All national and regional speech communication journals published between 1967 and 1973 were surveyed for articles which either analyzed some political communication variable or which proposed a methodology suitable for analysis of communication variables in a national political campaign. Fifty-four articles which dealt with some aspect of a contemporary national political campaign or which proposed a methodology formed the material for this study.

Once selected, the fifty-four articles were initially classified in terms of what appeared to be the primary purpose of each article. Six major categories were derived: (1) candidates and their rhetoric; (2) message analysis; (3) media; (4) voter behavior; (5) over-all campaign setting and strategy; and (6) methodology.

Eleven of the fifty-four articles in the survey had as their primary focus an examination or description of a specific candidate and/or one or more of his rhetorical characteristics or strategies. The articles here contained fewer fresh forms and less indication of rigorous research methods than did those in most of the other categories. Only four articles presented new approaches to communication criticism which future critics may find useful for analyzing political communication.

Fourteen of the fifty-four articles in the survey had as their primary focus the examination or analysis of a candidate's specific message. The articles varied widely in the message-oriented variables selected for analysis, the intensity of coverage, the approach used to research the message, and their quality; but in thirteen of the fourteen articles, message analysis was restricted to the examination of campaign speeches. Almost non-exixtent were analysis of radio and television campaign commercials, filmed campaign documentaries and biographies, campaign literature, or even brief statements given in press conferences. The strength of the research summarized in this category is the fresh methodologies and additional questions provided for examination of the traditional bastion of rhetorical concern, the analysis of speeches. But taken as a group, the studies are limited by a failure to broaden the definition of message to include the increasingly more frequently used forms of campaign communication--media commercials, biographies, and media interviews.

Seven of the fifty-four articles had as their primary emphasis the examination or analysis of the media in political communication. While the five studies reported in this category establish that workable research exist for media studies of political communication, the sparsity of such studies during a six-year period when a major portion of campaign rhetoric was broadcast indicates that the speech communication discipline is not taking leadership in this area.

Three of the fifty-four articles had as their primary focus the effect of campaign communication on the behavior of voters. As in the previous category, research within speech communication on voters' behavior

is limited. Speech communication research has almost ignored both of the elements discussed in this category--effect of communication and voter behavior. The critical question is "why?" Why have only three of the fifty-four articles published over a six-year period had as their primary focus the effect of communication on voter behavior? Part of the answer is that traditionally the critic-analyst has had a speaker/message orientation as opposed to a receiver orientation. In addition, concentrated research efforts on variables which demand quantification may have been avoided because many critics do not feel comfortable with empirically based methodologies.

Eleven of the fifty-four had as their primary focus an examination or description of either over-all campaign strategy or specific strategies of a single candidate. Although the articles varied widely in the topics selected for analysis and the intensity of coverage, the methods of researching campaign strategies did not. With too few exceptions, the articles in this category failed to demonstrate concern for any kind of precisely defined or rigorously pursued methodology. Instead of an examination of the various strategies employed according to criteria imposed by any traditional or fresh approach to analysis, the investigation was often simply a record of the authors' opinions and/or analysis of what other political commentators were writing. Although campaign strategies constituted the second largest category in the survey, few fresh forms or approaches to researching candidates' election strategies were apparent and not only were new approaches in the minority, dedication to any definite or rigorous methodology was often lacking.

Eight of the fifty-four articles had as their primary focus either a general exhortation for the field to conduct more research on a particular communication variable and/or group of variables, or to use a specific metholology to analyze political campaign communication. Although these articles demonstrated a concern for exploring new ways of researching policical communication, the new ways were largely confined to empirically based methodologies or to the conceptualization of specific models for precise analyses of a specific variable.

This article might be useful to the individual who is concerned with methodology. The author discusses some of the better articles and tells why their approach is appealing. However, this article pertains mainly with problems in political communication research methods.

Brenda J. Webb

"New Approaches to the Study of Movements:
Defining Movements Rhetorically"
Robert S. Cathcart
Western Journal of Speech Communication, 36(1972), 289-300.

This article deals with the need to find new approaches to the practices of rhetorical criticism. Cathcart is more concerned with the theoretical aspects of such study, but he realizes that methology must necessarily be examined too. Cathcart feels that not only are the standard tools of rhetorical criticism ill-suited for unravelling the complexity of discourse in social movement, but that the present definitions of movements are ill-suited to the formulation of an adequate theory of the rhetoric of movements.

Most of the studies in this field have been predicated on Griffin's 1952 definition of movements, which has three elements: (1) a historical movement is something that has occurred "at some time in the past", (2) movements are linear, that is, men become dissatisfied, then they make efforts to change their environment, then their efforts result in some degree of success or failure; and (3) movements have a historical component and a rhetorical component. Cathcart feels that this definition is too confining. It not only limits study to past human interactions, but it requires waiting for a complete cycle of the interaction to take place before it can be recognized. This definition also places an extra burden on the rhetorical critic to distinguish between that part of the movement which is historical and that part which is his special province, the rhetorical. This relationship between history and rhetoric is often used as the justification for the rhetorical criticism of American public addresses as historical events. This approach comes close to making a movement more nearly a chunk of history than a unique compound of historical and rhetorical molecules which can be isolated for special treatment. Using the historical approach to movement study has forced the criticisms to be much like traditional speaker-speech analyses.

A second source of definition for rhetorical critics of movements has been the writings of social scientists. Definitions from this source view social movements as a form of collective behavior organized to produce change. As with historical definitions of movements, these definitions are so imprecise that it becomes impossible to identify which collective behaviors are movements. In addition, the social psychologists usually look at collective behavior in contrast to individual behavior rather than contrasting certain collective behaviors with larger societal behaviors. They also tend to overlook the dynamic quality of the larger social system, the evolving status quo. When these individuals talk of collective behavior organized to produce change, they are often describing the status quo rather than a social or political movement. In contrast, what the rhetorical critic of movements must be concerned with is not definitions which describe the dynamic status quo, but definitions which describe those collective behaviors which cannot be accommodated within the normal movement of the status quo.

Cathcart proposes that the historical and socio-psychological definition be abandoned and that a new, rhetorical definition of movements

be formulated. To this end, he examined Griffin's new approach to movements which is based on Burkeian dramatistic philosophy. A dramatistic theory of movements needs a dramatistic definition of movements, and Cathcart suggests that two Burkeian ratios, agency-scene and agency-act, are essential to the inception of a movement. There must be actors who perceive the established system to be a faculty order and who cry out through various symbolic acts that justice will not come until immediate corrective measures have been applied. Opposing this, there must be a reciprocating act from the establishment which perceived the demands of the agitators. It is this reciprocity or dialectical enjoinment in the moral arena which defines movements and distinguishes them from other dramatistic forms.

According to Cathcart, the particular dialectic described above, is a necessary ingredient for production of the rhetorical form recognized as a political or social movement. Though not the only attribute necessary to formulate a complete definition of movements, it is essential. The author urges researchers to work toward a fullblown rhetorical definition of movements and to avoid, thereby, being the handmaiden to historians and social scientists.

Theodessa Saffer

Persuasion

This section includes both rhetorical as well as emperical sources for the study of persuasion. It is offered as a separate section to emphasize the importance of the topic to speech communication.

No single topic of recognized importance in the field is so clearly dominated by a single scholar as is persuasion theory and research. It is fitting that the abstracts are organized to begin and end with articles by Herbert Simons, who has been the instrumental genius behind creative work in persuasion.

Other articles in this group raise important questions as well and, as a group, this collection best defines the scope and nature of the subarea of communication.

Herbert Simons, "Psychological Theories of Persuasion: An Auditor's Report."

Gary Cronkhite, "Persuasion: Parochialism or Process?"

Stephen B. Jones, Michael Burgoon, and Diane Stewart, "Toward a Message-Centered Theory of Persuasion: Three Empirical Investigations of Language Intensity."

Herbert W. Simons, "Requirements, Problems, and Strategies: A Theory of Persuasion for Social Movements."

Mary Larson, "Some Problems in Dissonance Theory Research."

Charles Larson and Robert Sanders, "Faith, Mystery, and Data: An Analysis of 'Scientific' Studies of Persuasion."

Thomas M. Steinfatt and Dominic A. Infante, "Attitude-Behavior Relationships in Communication Research."

Herbert W. Simons, "Persuasion in Social Conflicts: A Critique of Prevailing Conceptions and a Framework for Future Research."

"Psychological Theories of Persuasion:
An Auditor's Report"
Herbert Simons
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 57(1971), 383-392.

The purpose of this paper was to provide an overall appraisal of the contributions of psychological theories of persuasion. The criteria used to evaluate the theories were: 1) logical rigor, 2) predictiveness, 3) provocativeness, and 4) comprehensiveness.

The criterion of logical rigor was applied to determine if the theories used terms consistently and clearly, and if the rules of correspondence could be applied reliably to the real world. It was suggested that ambiguities plague psychological theories of persuasion because the complexity of the process requires terms that are difficult to operationalize. It was also suggested that approaches characterized by phenomenology were limited in their ability to explicate concepts. Works by Asch, Heider, Lewin, and Rogers were cited as examples. Mediational theories, which posit phenomenological variables but attempt to link them to observable behaviors by means of explicit rules or definitions, were cited as promising for the development of complex theories, but are still limited by subjectivity. Doob and Fishbein, Greenwald and Weiss, Osgood, and Suci and Tannenbaum were cited as theorists who have attempted to establish the existence of mediators by first postulating them, then operationally defining them, deducing hypotheses that follow from their existence, and then testing these hypotheses. More analysis of conceptual constructs and fewer premature attempts at empirical verification were encouraged. It was suggested that Festinger and other researchers confess a lack of operational definitions for concepts.

The criterion of predictiveness was used to assess the applicability of the theories to the real world. It was concluded that theorists have experienced difficulty in documenting their central propositions. It was suggested that Festinger, Osgood and Tannenbaum, and Abelson and Rosenberg have received criticism due to premature quantification and the addition of revised corrective principles to the central theories.

Provocativeness was defined as the ability to generate new research and new theories and to "explain" in a subjective sense. It was concluded that the heuristic value of psychological persuasion theories was well demonstrated by the number of studies generated, the extent to which non-obvious hypotheses have been derived and confirmed, and the capacity to provide substantive satisfying explanations for complex, real-life phenomena. Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance was cited as an example of a provocative theory. Festinger's theory has generated over 300 studies.

Four suggestions about how persuasion theory could become even more comprehensive were presented. It was proposed that theorists could explore, in greater depth, the relationship between attitudes and behaviors; explore the overlapping relationship between persuasion and coercion; add factors in the social setting to their theories; and redefine their orientations to permit more macroscopic accounts of the persuasion process.

Simon's article provides an assesment of the current state of psychological persuasion theories. An extensive bibliography of the major psychological theories is provided. The limitations of the present state of theory development, as well as its strengths and the implications for future research, are discussed.

Donna Jensen

"Persuasion: Parochialism or Process?"
Gary Cronkhite
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 61(1975), 100-104.

The major thesis in the article is that "There is a real need for greater emphasis upon the receptive function in the study of the process of persuasion." The reason for this need is because of an excess of research and theory in available textbooks directed toward the persuader. There are three possible reasons for this preoccupation with the persuader. First is that the roots of the term persuasion do not imply a process of sharing, but rather one of manipulation. Second is the historical development of the persuader swaying groups of people in order to rule. Third is that persuaders are more easily trained than listeners.

Any theory which is concerned with attempting to get others to do what the speaker wants without explaining the function of the listener, falls short of fully accounting for the process of persuasion. There is a definite value to be derived from education in the "detection of deceptive propaganda", but "no one studies critical reception, participants self-esteem, respect for other participants, reciprocity of deception and information, or verbal and nonverbal cues and correlates of deception." These are all variables which are a part of the total persuasion process.

Of the twenty-two books indicated, specific reference is made to only six, while the other sixteen are grouped as having the fault of emphasizing the persuader and neglecting the persuadee. Of those six, Neil Postman and Charles Weingartner, advocate the need for educating the listener in Teaching as a Subversive Activity. Raymond Ross' book, Persuasion: Communication and Interpersonal Relations, is oriented toward the beginning speech student, but, despite its simplified approach, does treat communication as a transactive process. Two books of merit which give equal concern to the persuader and persuadee are Kiesler, Collins, and Miller's Attitude Change: A Critical Analysis of Theoretical Approaches, and Harry Traindus' Attitude and Attitude Change. The two books found to place emphasis on the receptive function and to neglect the persuader are: Daryl Bem's Attitudes and Human Affairs, and Charles Larson's Persuasion: Reception and Responsibility.

The article is more concerned with surveying a problem and reasons for a problem inherent in persuasion textbooks than reviewing textbooks. Minimal comments are made about six persuasion textbooks. There is a good reference list of persuasion books which are persuader-oriented.

Jeanette McDaniel

"Toward a Message-Centered Theory of Persuasion:
Three Empirical Investigations of Language Intensity"
Stephen B. Jones, Michael Burgoon, and Diane Stewart
Human Communication Research, 1(1975), 240-255.

Theory development in communication has been restricted because of the tendency to borrow models for research from other disciplines and to use their theories as well. If theory development takes place it must include message variables, which were ignored in the past because they are very difficult to analyze. However enough research has now been conducted to begin to theorize propositions concerning these message variables. This paper states some of these propositions and reports the results of three experiments testing the hypothesis from which the propositions came.

The first five propositions are:

I: Attitude change is a function of the level of language intensity in a persuasive message, type of persuasive paradigm employed, and the receiver's expectations of the source's communication behavior.

II: In an active encoding situation, the more intense an individual's encoding, the more he will change his attitude to conform to his public communication.

III: Given passive reception of a belief-discrepant persuasive message, low-intense language produces more attitude change than does highly intense language.

IV: Given the passive message reception condition, when a source uses a level of language intensity that violates the receiver's expectations in a positive manner, significant attitude change will occur in the direction advocated by the source.

V: Given the passive message reception condition, when a source takes an unexpectedly intense position, it will result in minimal or even negative attitude change.

Propositions one and two specify the initial conditions and relationship with language intensity to produce attitude change. Three expands the relationship to include passive message reception and four and five are extensions of three. The next propositions are concerned with specifying initial conditions which lead to differential message production. They are:

VI: Level of language intensity encoded is a function of prior attitude and amount of cognitive stress experienced during encoding.

VI-A: Prior attitudes affect the level of language intensity a person will choose to encode such that the more strongly one believes in what he is saying, the more intense he will be in stating it.

VI-B: When people are placed under cognitive stress, they produce less intense communication.

These propositions provide the basis of predictions concerning situations which include other variables. The first experiment used the variables of sex of source, receiver and language intensity on attitude change. The two hypothesis being tested were:

I-I: Male receivers will demonstrate less attitude change than will female receivers.

I-2: There will be an interaction between language intensity and sex of the source such that a female source will be most effective with low-intense language and a male will be least effective with low-intense language.

This experiment was conducted with 145 undergraduate journalism students, and the results proved both hypothesis.

The second experiment used as its variables irrelevant fear and language intensity on attitude change. The two hypothesis being tested were:

II-I: People in condition of irrelevant fear will demonstrate more attitude change than those in a no fear condition.

II-2: A low-intense persuasive message will produce more attitude change than will a highly intense message.

Subjects were drawn from an undergraduate college speech course and the results again proved both hypothesis.

The third experiment used the variables of source and language intensity on attitude change and person perception. The hypothesis examined was:

III-I: Source credibility and language intensity interact so that a low credible speaker will be more persuasive using low-intense language while a high credible speaker will be more effective with highly intenst language.

A question was also asked:

III-I: What impact will differential language intensity have upon receiver perceptions of a source's competence, character, sociability, extroversion, and composure?

The results of the question indicate that a high credible source was seen as more competent, and composed, but the low credible source was rated higher in sociability and extroversion. There was a failure of the data in proving the hypothesis since no significant data was demonstrated.

The overall results indicate that a female speaker and a source with low credibility have greater attitude changes when using high intensity language. While highly credible sources and male speakers produce more changes in attitude using high intensity language. People under stress are more likely to respond to low intensity persuasive messages. Further research is needed to complete the theory but the first step in a message-centered theory of persuasion has been taken.

The reader will find a complete explaination of each of these experiments along with the sources and bibliography references for additional research which has been done in this area. If research is about to be undertaken to develop the theory of message-centered persuasion or one would like to understand the beginnings of this theory this article is valuable reading.

Carla Deckert

"Requirements, Problems, and Strategies:
A Theory of Persuasion for Social Movements."
Herbert W. Simons
The Quarterly Journal of Speech, 56(1970), 1-11.

The article propounds a theoretical framework for the analysis and study of persuasion in an entity known as the Social Movement. This theoretical framework draws from sociological theory and from case studies of social movements. The theory focuses on the leadership position and examines persuasion in the movement from that standpoint.

There are three major sections which make up the article. Section one provides a very brief overview of rhetorical analysis from a general perspective, and defines terms and explains the aim of the article. Section two is concerned with the three main thrusts of the theory: (1) the rhetorical requirements for the leader; (2) the rhetorical problems faced by the leader; and, (3) the rhetorical strategies open to the leader. Section three concludes and summarizes the article.

The article begins by explaining the magnitude of studying and analyzing the persuasion of a social movement as compared to the usual analysis of a speech or a series of speeches. Specifically, the paper is focusing on revolutionary and reformist movement. The leadership approach is extracted from sociological theory of collective behavior and of social movements. Thus, the aim of the article is to provide a leadership-centered perspective of persuasion within social movements.

Section two addresses the function of leadership in terms of the rhetoric involved in that particular role within the social movement. First, there are certain rhetorical requirements of the leader of a social movement: (1) he/she must recruit, maintain, and fashion workers into a unit which is efficently organized; (2) he/she must obtain adoption of their ideology by the supra-system; and, (3) he/she must respond to resistance put up by the supra-system. The social movement, even though it is an informal aggregate, has certain internal functions similar to a formal organization. This can engender problems. Thus, there are certain rhetorical problems of the leader of a social movement. He/she is subjected to numerous cross pressures from the movement and/or from the supra-system. He/she must consider the ethics involved in his/her situation. He/she must communicate varying messages depending upon the audience (i.e., movement members or members of the supra-system). He/she must keep a balance between task and maintenance functions within the movement. He/she must deal with role discrepancies of the leader (this relates to role perception from within movement and from outside of the movement). He/she must adapt to several audiences simultaneously (this relates to mass media and secondary audiences). (6) he/she must be able to be adaptive to varying situations. To handle these problems there must be rhetorical strategies used by the leader. The strategies fall along a continuum: moderate, intermediate, and militant. The moderate needs little explanation. It is a pattern of persuasion most familiar to rhetoricians. The militant, on the other hand, has four main strategies: (1) the militant must cause the movement to be visible to the supra-system; (2) the militant must be ambivalent about successes and failures (the supra-system is thus in a double bind position); (3) the militant must energize his/her workers; and, (4) the militant has

certain inherent "power" with certain groups in the supra-system, thus, the "power" can be useful. Intermediate strategies would be some synthesis of the moderate and the militant strategies. The intermediate strategical approach is a difficult position because of the problems it gains from the combination of the moderate and militant approach.

Section three summarizes the leadership centered theory of persuasion in social movements.

The value of the article is in its heuristic values for both the neophyte and professional communication theorist interested in the study of social movements, persuasion, or leadership.

Linus H. Brandt

"Some Problems in Dissonance Theory Research"
Mary Larson
Central States Speech Journal, 24(1973), 183-188.

The purpose of this article was to: 1) briefly survey the types of research based on the dissonance model of self persuasion; 2) to report two experiments which contradict many self persuasion studies; and 3) to review several of the trends in self persuasion research which may have led to these contradictory findings. Self persuasion studies are based on the premise that psychological discomfort which occurs because of the presence of dissonant cognitions will force a subject to engage in self persuasion to restore harmony between cognitions.

A typical self persuasion study surveys the attitudes of a randomly selected group of subjects towards a topic, and then forces them to engage in an act counter to their attitudes, such as reading or writing an essay containing an opposing view. Following such a dissonance-producing act, subjects' attitudes are retested. Studies by Festinger and Carlsmith, and Aronson and Carlsmith were cited as variations of this kind of study which focused on the use of punishment or reward to elicit compliance to the task. Other studies focused on the effects of personality variables on the attitude change and the effects of the strength of the commitment the subject had to the task.

Several criticisms of dissonance theory research were also noted. For example, the use of groups which advocate consonant positions as control groups was questionable. Subjects who advocate consonant positions may change their attitudes in the direction of their original position. If these groups are compared with dissonant groups, the findings may be significant, but false.

The first experiment reported was designed to discover if there was any persuasive difference between consonant and dissonant advocacy, using two levels of commitment. One hundred and thirty-five students enrolled in speech fundamentals classes at Northern Illinois University prepared either a consonant or dissonant speech and the subjects were either publicly committed (delivery of the speech to an audience) or privately committed (preparation but not delivery of the speech). The dependent variable in all four treatments was the amount of attitude change as measured by a Semantic Differential.

Support consistent with the predictions of dissonance theory was not found. In fact, a rather large number of subjects experienced attitude change contrary to the predictions, reporting attitude change in the direction of their original attitudes. Because of the failure to demonstrate significant attitude change in even the dissonant conditions, it was concluded that the experimental design was weak. To avoid possible biases, a second experiment was designed which eliminated advocacy to the audience and restricted the topics under consideration to a single one.

In the second experiment, one independent variable was used. Subjects wrote either consonant or dissonant persuasive essays advocating a position on the advisability of establishing a birth control clinic on campus. Subjects in a control condition were asked to write an essay on their feelings about ROTC on campus.

As in Experiment I, predicted effects were not found. Again, a surprising number of subjects changed their attitudes in a direction contrary to dissonance theory predictions.

Procedural weaknesses in self persuasion research based on the dissonance model might account for the lack of support. Specifically, the independent variable may have been too weak for an adequate test in previous studies, since subjects were typically exposed to dissonant information for only about 20 seconds. The alteration of attitudes may not be comprehensively measured with the instruments used. It was also suggested that researchers should focus more on the direction of attitude change when it occurs to determine if it is in the predicted direction. Finally, the authors noted that it is misleading to use consonant advocacy as a control condition.

Larson's article raises questions about findings of dissonance theory research. Two studies which contradict dissonance theory are reported in an effort to offer insights about problems underlying this line of research. The dependence of such research on a single exposure method and various design problems are discussed.

Donna Jensen

"Faith, Mystery, and Data: An Analysis
of 'Scientific' Studies of Persuasion"
Charles Larson and Robert Sanders
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 61(1975), 178-194.

There are two questions a naive reader of the rather massive body of persuasion investigations might ask: (a) Why has persuasion been treated as an independent research topic, rather than as a sub-species of communication? and (b) Why has the most typical experimental procedure been to assess the effect of isolated variables on respondents' attitudes? The answers are available from three propositions implicit in the research:

(1) Persuasion brings about changes in people's attitudes.
(2) Attitudes are constraints on behavior, or predispositions to respond.
(3) Persuasion brings aobut changes in what people will (or will not) do, because it affects attitudes which in turn affect behavior.

The two questions asked above call for the justification of persuasion research. The questions investigated in such research and the methods used make sense only if the three propositions implicit in the research are true. Since these three propositions are empirical claims and not axioms, research in persuasion rests on an insecure foundation, which would collapse if there were reason to doubt any one of them.

The proposition that attitudes constrain behavior has not been demonstrated. This lack of correspondence between attitudes and behavior has prompted two general positions to maintain its truth. One cites a general failure to accurately measure attitudes. The other claims the relationship between attitudes and behavior is more complex and indirect than has been thought. Neither of these positions is very convincing, because both require accepting the second proposition as true on faith. Also, two mysteries remain. First, if there has been a general failure to measure attitudes, what have persuasion studies been measuring? Second, if the relationship between attitudes and behavior is more complex and indirect than has been thought, then how complex can that relationship be before it is so indirect as to be trivial?

The entire body of "scientific" studies of persuasion is thus in a very tenuous position. Further re-examination reveals that the research has not been subjected to any sufficiently rigorous examination of its findings. For proponents of the research to claim that the discrepancies are the result of methodological failures requires that they have been general and persistent failures.

In order to support the view that the conceptual foundation of research in persuasion is questionable, two things will be demonstrated: (a) that the data are inconsistent with the assumptions which underlie the research, and (b) that there are assumptions with which the data are consistent, thus diminishing the possibility of pervasive methodological failures. Support for these claims will be provided by advancing two hypotheses and then examining a number of studies to see which hypothesis is most compatible with the data.

The predispositional hypothesis is that an attitude predisposes individuals to act in a particular way, and persuasion can change that attitude, thus changing what they do. The alignmental hypothesis, on the other hand, claims that persuasive acts affect what individuals are likely to say--that is, the alignments they establish. Further, norms and situations will determine these verbalizations. In the following examination of studies, either one hypothesis or the other must account for the data, or no account will be offered. Studies involving fear appeals, evidence, and one-sided versus two-sided arguments will be examined to demonstrate the usefulness of the alignmental hypothesis while showing the inadequacies of the predispositional hypothesis.

While expectations were that the greater the fear arousal, the greater the attitude change, research found a point of diminishing returns. Three explanations defending the predispositional hypothesis were offered. (1) "Insufficient vigilance" causes the reversal. (2) "Hypervigilance" interferes with the reception of the fear appeal. (3) There are effects which are unintended and which cause a "residual emotional tension" in the receiver. An examination of the research suggests that none of these are likely explanations, leaving the predispositional hypothesis without support.

By Osgood's Congruity hypothesis, when a source uses fear appeals with an audience, attitudes toward both topic and source will shift in order to reduce the tension toward both topic and source will shift in order to reduce the tension so produced. However, Miller and Hewgill predicted and found that a highly credible source offering a fear appeal will increase in credibility as the fear appeal intensifies, thus running counter to existing tension-reduction formulations and thereby counter to the predispositional hypothesis. The alignmental hypothesis would suggest that if a person with whom an individual aligns (finds credibility) threatens him, it is reasonable to assume that the individual will renew his efforts to maintain his alignment. Thus the alignmental hypothesis does account for their findings.

In terms of evidence studies, tension-reduction formulations (already related to the predispositional hypothesis) predict that measured attitudes towards source should change in a direction opposite that of measured changes toward topic. Contrarily, the alignmental hypothesis predicts that evidence will have similar effects on both attitudes towards source and towards topic. Looking at studies of evidence as a factor in persuasion reported by McCroskey, the predictions of the alignmental hypothesis hold up.

One major conclusion which can be drawn from his studies is that including evidence has little impact on source credibility or topic acceptance with an initially highly credible source, but has great impact on both with an initially low credibility source. Since this affects both attitudes towards source and towards topic simultaneously, it supports the alignmental hypothesis, while casting doubt on the predispositional hypothesis. A second finding is that evidence has little effect on attitudes toward source and towards topic if the message is poorly delivered, again easily explained in terms of alignments. A third finding was that including evidence which is already known

to the audience has little impact on either attitudes toward source or towards topic, also supporting the alignmental hypothesis.

In terms of one-sided versus two-sided arguments, it is important to the predispositional hypothesis whether type of argument is a source-related or topic-related variable. To uphold the predispositional hypothesis, it must affect attitudes toward either the one or the other, or if it is related to both, then toward both equally. A study of Koehler reported two significant findings that clearly violated the predispositional hypothesis. To explain the findings, alternative assumptions had to be developed.

The implications of this examination of persuasion research are that the predispositional hypothesis has merit only if serious issues about information processing and the "semantics" of message elements can be resolved. The alignmental hypothesis holds that rhetoric adjusts people to each other, rather than to ideas. Thus it seems more in keeping with the current findings in persuasion research. In summary, the empirical evidence seems far more compatible with both traditional and contemporary rhetorical theories than it does with the behaviorist assumptions which led to obtaining it. In short, a re-examination of the propositions on which research in persuasion is based is long overdue.

This serves as a real challenge to researchers to consider seriously what assumptions they are making as they study communication. Further, it offers a possible hypothesis to give direction for continued research. Finally, it awakens in the reader a stronger concern with the foundational truths on which any research they undertake or study is based.

David A. Bullock

"Attitude-Behavior Relationships in
Communication Research"
Thomas M. Steinfatt and Dominic A. Infante
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 62(1976), 267-278

The conviction that "beliefs affect behavior" is so common it pervades our daily lives. When we begin with a behavior, we readily accept that we can trace it back to a belief. Further, few question the results of dissonance experiments: engaging in a behavior leads to a change in a related cognitive state. Only when we begin with an internal cognitive state and attempt to predict behavior do we find real challenge to the notion of a consistent relationship between belief and behavior. The challenge is made primarily in terms of experimental studies, as field surveys show more support for such consistency.

Larson and Sanders, in a recent article entitled, "Faith, Mystery and Data: An Analysis of 'Scientific' Studies of Persuasion", Quarterly Journal of Speech, 61(1975), 178-194, questioned the relationship between attitude and behavior, and challenged the basis for all research in persuasion which has measured attitude as an intervening variable between a message and human behavior. They also provided an alignmental hypothesis as an alternative explanation of persuasion. This is a response to their challenge.

Larson and Sanders claim that nobody has questioned one of three propositions which they claim are implicit in persuasion research: That attitudes are constraints on behavior, or predispositions to respond. Yet there are a considerable number of articles suggesting precisely that. They refer to citations from four sources, Festinger, Rokeach, Miller, and Fishbein, all of whom in other places support the attitude-behavior relationship. They also refer to a LaPiere study, which was not properly constructed, thus negating the usefulness of his results.

Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen have developed careful conceptual distinctions among beliefs, attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors. They have shown that problems in previous studies have rendered them irrelevant to the issue. One problem is in predicting behavior as a single act, observed once. A second problem is that many studies have attempted to predict a behavior which subjects perceived as largely irrelevant to the attitude object. What seems more accurate is that attitude toward an object is related to the multiple-act criterion for behavior, and attitude toward the behavioral act plays an important role in predicting a single behavior.

In their charge that the past conduct of research in persuasion is not very "scientific," Larson and Sanders suggest that persuasive acts affect what people are likely to say, rather than do. This avoids dealing with the question of when a symbolic act becomes behavior. (Hitler never did anything directly against the Jews!)

In Larson and Sanders' alignmental hypothesis, all verbal communication results from the variables of group membership norms and situations. Yet this gives no accounting for the individuals involved in the situations. To deny the necessity of internal states is to assume that a stimulus affects all individuals in the same way. Different perceptions of the same stimulus, and perceptions of different stimuli as being the same

strongly refute Larson and Sanders' strict behavioristic position.

There are three other objections to Larson and Sanders' alignmental hypothesis. First, it posits that what a person says in response to some stimulus is controlled by the social functions that are salient for the person. This leaves out the individual's motivation to comply with a given norm, an important predictor of behavior. Second, the support for the alignmental hypothesis is due to the selection of studies to fit the hypothesis, rather than through a random or representative sample of the persuasion literature. Third, Larson and Sanders specify the assumptions of Osgood's Congruity hypothesis and then erroneously and arbitrarily term this set of assumptions the predispositional hypothesis. In arming the predispositional hypothesis with the assumptions of congruity theory, they have, in effect, contrasted their alignmental hypothesis with one of the weaker of the tension-reduction opponents. While Larson and Sanders analyzed Miller and Hewgill's study and found results that do not follow from congruity theory assumptions, the findings do support the assumptions of dissonance theory. Thus there is really no reason left to accept Larson and Sanders' position.

This article gives the reader of persuasion research a stimulating defense of current understanding in the areas. It restores one's faith in those working in the area of persuasion research after the direct challenge presented by Larson and Sanders. If it serves no other purpose, it should serve as a caveat to the reader of the importance of careful scrutiny of the current literature in the field before jumping to any (potentially false) conclusions.

David A. Bullock

"Persuasion in Social Conflicts:
A Critique of Prevailing Conceptions and a
Framework for Future Research"
Herbert W. Simons
Speech Monographs, 39(1972), 227-247

Most perspectives on social conflict may be roughly classified as either "actor-oriented" or "system-oriented." From an actor orientation, conflicts are necessary and inevitable consequences of systems that can't possibly satisfy the needs of all persons equally or completely. Hence, the role of the scholar is to determine how actors may realize their individual interests, either in conflicts with other actors or with the system itself. From a system orientation, conflicts are undesirable because they interfere with realization of the system's supraordinate goals. Hence, from this perspective, the scholar is above the battle, concerned with conflict regulation and resolution instead of the partisan concern of how to win.

In the first part of this article Simons shows that, in common with other disciplines, they have tended to reflect an "establishment" bias that has nurtured and, in turn, been supported by questionable distinctions and generalizations. He does this by drawing on the observations of conflict theorists in fields outside his own. Part II of the article presents a proposed framework for research on persuasion in social conflicts and then offers several suggsstions for research, justified in terms of the need to close theoretical gaps and overturn myths reflected in prevailing conceptions. Running through both sections of the paper is the concept of "coercive persuasion," offered here as a way of understanding the often ambiguous nature of influence attempts in conflict situation. In a general sense, this is a name for cases involving mixtures of coercive and persuasive elements. In a narrower sense, it refers to a range of strategies of persuasion, distinguishable from co-active strategies based upon a dynamic of psychological convergence.

On the face of it, there appears to be nothing wrong with system orientations; the needs of social systems must be considered in any balanced and comprehensive approach to social conflicts. To be system-oriented is to value the products of collective effort, to recognize that personal freedom can come only from social order, and hence, to conclude that conflicts must necessarily be controlled in the larger system's interests. Although rhetoricians have by no means foresworn identification with the interests of actors, their support has been guarded, qualified, and highly selective. For the most part they have insisted that self-imposed limits should be placed on how influence is exercised and have urged that the individual interest be subordinated to the collective interest. In these respects, prevailing conceptions of persuasion in social conflicts have tended to be system-oriented.

Coser and Skolnick, among others, have argued that however reasonable system orientations may appear in principle, in practice they have constituted indiscriminate rationales for the preservation of existing systems and for those priviliged persons who wield power within them. Furthermore, these authors have maintained that system orientations tend to be blind to the nature of conflict and social influence, to the needs of "Outs" and

"Have-Nots," and to the utility of social conflict for societies. Although the bill of indictments presented by Coser, Skolnick, et al. was directed at fellow sociologists and political scientists rather than at rhetoricians, its general applicability to system orientations provides a useful context for Simons article. Simons illustrate how each of their criticisms may be applied to prevailing conceptions held by rhetoricians concerning persuasion in social conflict.

For those interested in developing a framework for studying conflict that minimizes the influence of personal values, William Gamson has suggested what he calls "dual perspective." His argument is that one can most profitably examine conflict from the perspective of both the actors attempting to maximize their interests in conflict situations and the systems attempting to regulate conflict in the collective interest. A more complete picture of social conflict is provided by examining it from both perspectives. Gamson's suggestion seems eminently sensible to Simons as a framework for studying persuasion in social conflict.

Simons states that rhetoricians can make enormous contributions to the study of social conflict, but they can do so only if they are willing to re-examine fundamental assumptions that have long dominated the thinking of both humanists and behaviorists. He believes it is now time for a radical reorientation toward social conflict, one that makes the study of how conflicts can be won in a given actors behalf as respectable as the study of how conflicts may be regulated in a given system's behalf.

Our historic system orientation has blinded us to the rhetorical needs of those poor and relatively powerless individuals who suffer under existing systems. This article would be of interest to the individual who is curious in looking at social conflict from a dual perspective. That is, one that profits from the insights of both actor-oriented and system-oriented perspectives. Also, the author focuses on research that will debunk myths and close theoretical gaps that will continue to exist partly because of our traditional system-orientation.

Brenda J. Webb

Organizational Communication

Organizational communication is probably the single fastest growing area in communication. Although little has yet appeared in the speech communication literature (the most significant literature in this area is in business administration journals), the frequency will increase steadily as they have in the most recent years.

This collection is almost the complete set of articles in the speech communication journals for the period covered.

Leonard C. Hawes, "Social Collectives as Communication: Perspective on Organizational Behavior."

Lyman K. Steil, "The Relevance of Modern Organization Theory to Organizational Communication."

Cal W. Downs and Michael W. Larimer, "The Status of Organizational Communication in Speech Departments."

Donald MacDonald, "Communication Roles and Communication Networks in a Formal Organization."

Lyle Sussman, "Communication in Organizational Hierarchies: The Fallacy of Perceptual Congruence."

Phillip K. Tompkins, Jeanne Y. Fisher, Dominic A. Infante, and Elaine L. Tompkins, "Kenneth Burke and the Inherent Characteristics of Formal Organizations: A Field Study."

Patrick J. McDermott and Don F. Faules, "Context Effects on the Measurement of Organizational Credibility."

"Social Collectives as Communication:
Perspective on Organizational Behavior"
Leonard C. Hawes
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 60(1974), 497-502.

The purpose of the article is two fold in nature. First, several books dealing with organizational behavior are reviewed for the reader. These books are written from a variety of social science perspectives, and thus, provide a variety of approaches to the study of organizational behavior. Second, the "social collectives" approach to the study of organizational behavior is propounded in the article.

The books surveyed in tne article represent perspectives ranging from management science to communications. Even with this variety there is still several common threads which run through almost all of the books. One common thread is the assumption that organizations are "relatively permanent, complex, and interdependent." A second common thread is the a priori assumption that organizations are already organized entities. A third common thread is the assumption that societies, organizations, and small groups are implicitly defined according to the number of people involved in the situation.

Haas and Drabek co-author Complex Organizations: A Sociological Perspective. This book is formulated around a "stress-strain model of organizational behavior." The book notes how stress and strain are dealt with by patterns of interaction. In this book the organization is studied from both a micro and macro level perspective. Organization, Structure and Process by Hall is based on the construct that organizations are dynamic and possess unique characters. This work studies the organization from a macro level perspective. Organizational System on anthology edited by Azumi and Hage addresses topic such as power, structure, influence of technology, goal setting, and so forth. This anthology analyzes organizations from the macro level perspective. Modern Organizational Theory, a book of readings compiled by Negandhi concerns itself with environmental, contextual, and socio-cultural elements and their influence on organizational behavior. This book also studies organizations from a macro level perspective. The Limits of Organizational Change conceived by Kaufman ponders the idea that considering the forces at work which cause organizations to be static and how changes which occur within these organizations can be explained. The Creation of Settings and the Future of Societies by Sarason concerns itself with the question why so many attempted organizations cease to exist as entities. This book looks at organizations from a macro level perspective. Organizational Communication written by Goldhaber is the only book in this group which deals directly with "the flow of messages" (communication) within the "network of interdependent relationships" (organization). This book takes a micro level perspective on organizations.

Leonard Hawes propounds an alternative approach to the study of organizational behavior. This "social collectivity" approach is from a communication perspective. The concept "social collectivity" is defined as "patterned communicative behavior." This communicative behavior sets the parameters for the network of relationships occuring in an aggregate of people. Social rules and norms can be determined for a collectivity from the communicative behavior. It is these three elements: (1) the

communicative behavior; (2) the social rules; and (3) the norms which are the basic criterion for studying and analyzing organizations.

This approach creates a number of questions about organizations and organizational behavior. For example, how are collectivities like families, businesses, communes, social movements, and volunteer organizations similar or dissimilar? How are resources like personnel, material, and information defined and opperate?

The value of this article is that it introduces the reader to several contemporary works in organizational behavior and gives a brief abstract of each of these works. This article also provides a new and unique approach to the study of organizational behavior.

Linus H. Brandt

"The Relevance of Modern Organization Theory
to Organizational Communication"
Lyman K. Steil
Central States Speech Journal, 22(1971), 78-84.

The article is sub-divided into three major sections. The first section consists of a cursory survey of the three most prominent schools of organizational theory: the classical theory (Scientific Management), the neoclassical theory (Human Relations), and the modern theory (systems theory). The second section is concerned with the analysis of the degree to which speech-communication scholars employed the modern organizational theory to their efforts in organizational communication. The final section dealt with the implications that the systemic view has for advancing organizational communications.

In the first section the classical theory is attributed to the advent of the "four key pillars" of organizational theory: (1) division of labor, (2) hierarchy and functional processes, (3) structure, and, (4) span of control. Thus, the classical theory focused its effort upon the formal anatomy of the organization.

The neoclassical approach built upon the "four key pillars" of organizational theory, but the main contribution this approach provided was its focus on the human element of the organization. The neoclassical theory also brought the complexity of the organization out into the light.

The above mentioned theories have some limitations. Consequently, a third theory has emerged into view: the "modern" or systems theory. A general systems approach to inquiry and research brings some distinct advantages to organizational theory.

The author provides a synthesis of the literature taken from textbooks, journal articles, dissertations, and convention programs in the discipline of speech-communication for the years 1965 to 1971. Steil's review indicates, to this point, the modern theory had been neglected by the discipline.

In the final section he mentions four implications the modern theory has for organizational theory: (1) the systemic approach can be modified to understanding and description of the organization; (2) the concepts of system, super-system, and sub-system can aid in understanding the complexity and interrelatedness of the organization; (3) the modern approach focuses the attention of analysis upon the systemic anatomy of the organization and on the process of communication related to the organization; and, (4) in the past consultants have focused upon segments of the organization rather than the total system. Consultants have not considered the process of communication and thus, have not considered relationships or social settings within the organization.

The value of this article lies in the historical perspective it provides on the development of organizational theory, in particular the systemic point of view.

Linus H. Brandt

"The Status of Organizational
Communication In Speech Departments"
Cal W. Downs and Michael W. Larimer
Speech Teacher, 23(1974), 325-329

The purpose of this article is to present the results of an organizational communication survey directed by two University of Kansas professors mailed to one hundred seventy-four departments, ninety-eight of which returned answers. The two objectives of the survey were to determine: (1) the current status of organizational communication; and (2) the nature of organizational communication offerings.

Sixty-one schools were offering a total of one hundred seventy-six courses in the area, although the majority of those departments only offered one or two courses. Sixty per cent of the courses had originated during the five years prior to the survey date, and for the most part there is only one section of each class. Eighteen departments offer an undergraduate major and twenty-four offer a graduate major. Forty-four departments are primarily composed of majors and thirty-five have more non-speech majors enrolled in the program.

The survey also indicated five reasons for teaching organizational communication. They were: (1) it represents a significant portion of human communication behavior and its study can bridge between theory and practice; (2) there is a strong trend toward non-teaching speech-oriented jobs; (3) it represents an area of Action research; (4) it gives a greater study selection to attract students; and (5) it is in demand. The courses offered are highly varied and indicate that theory receives more emphasis than skills and "the relative frequencies with which subjects are taught at graduate and undergraduate levels are quite similar."

The article lists the ten most frequently used books for the courses offered at undergraduate and graduate levels. A total of seventy-two books were indicated by the survey. No matter which book used, the most frequently mentioned teaching method is lecture and seminar discussion, and the least used is sensitivity training at both levels of work. Research is used more at the graduate level.

The survey did indicate that there is an interest in organizational communication, although the interest is still slow in developing. Thirty-one departments indicated a desire to expand while only seven indicated lack of desire to teach such courses.

The article gives a limited view of the trend of organizational communication, and it does not indicate the availability of any other statistical material to support or deny the information presented. The list of textbooks used by the schools would be of value for further reading about organizational communication.

Jeanette McDaniel

"Communication Roles and Communication Networks
in a Formal Organization"
Donald MacDonald
Human Communication Research, 2(1976), 365-375.

This was a study of two roles filled by members of organizations: liaisons and non-liaisons. These roles were defined by their relationships with others in the communication networks and compared on several dimensions.

The research was conducted among 185 members of a headquarters staff of a federal bureau that manages nationwide programs. The staff was asked to report on their communication behaviors and how they perceived themselves and their communication contacts in the organization. Reported member contacts were charted on a matrix so that communication groups could be identified. Separate networks were constructed for production, maintenance, and innovation messages, and liaisons were identified within the networks.

A liaison was defined as a member with frequent communication contacts in at least two communication groups. The other role examined was that of non-liaison group members whose communications were centered in a bounded network of colleagues and who were not, themselves, liaisons.

In addition to the personal contact questionnaire, a questionnaire was administered which measured respondents' perceptions of the extensiveness of communication, influence, access to work and non-production information, message control, system openness, and management message satisfaction. Eight hypotheses derived from the variables were tested.

The findings were that liaison persons made and received more communication choices than other members of the bureau staff. The first hypothesis was that liaisons would perceive themselves to have more contacts than their nonliaison colleagues. Support did not reach the level of significance, although it was in the predicted direction. Support was also absent for the second hypothesis that liaisons were expected to perceive themselves as having more potential influence in the organization than their frequent non-liaison contacts.

It was expected that liaisons would feel they possessed more work-related information than their non-liaison frequent contacts and weak support was found. Liaisons were not found to perceive themselves as possessing more information than non-liaisons about matters not directly related to job tasks. Production communication network liaisons were more likely than other liaisons to hold formal supervisory positions.

It was also found that liaisons were perceived as having more control over the flow of messages and that liaisons were more satisfied with their jobs and the organization's communication system. A hypothesis that stated liaisons would perceive the work-related communication system as more "open" was not supported.

In summary, liaison persons did not perceive themselves to have significantly more and more structurally diverse communication contacts in the organization, although others tended to see them that way. Nor did they perceive themselves to have more potential influence in the organization, while their non-liaison contacts tended to accord them such status.

It was suggested that the nature of organizational tasks and technology, and the location of members accounted, in part, for the difference. Comparative studies were encouraged and it was noted that if, in other studies, liaisons were found to be aware of their functions, then research should examine whether people seek out positions or develop styles to insure their liaison roles. The study of network roles over time was also suggested.

MacDonald's research focuses on relational aspects of organizational communication. The study attempted to extend the knowledge of the liaison function, suggesting that liaisons may not only be perceived by others (as previous research indicates) but also may be aware that they perform these linking and influence functions.

Donna Jensen

"Communication in Organizational Hierarchies:
The Fallacy of Perceptual Congruence"
Lyle Sussman
Western Journal of Speech Communication, 39(1975), 191-199.

This article posits that divergence of task-related perceptions in the superior-subordinate dyad is not a manifestation of "communication breakdown" but is in fact a "natural" and often "healthy" state of such dyads. The article is supported by a two-tier foundation: principles derived from role theory, and principles derived from organization conflict theory.

One theme common to many organizational theorists is that the most fruitful way for describing the behavior of organizational members is from the perspective of role theory. As the building block of social systems, the concept of role provides a heuristic device especially meaningful for the analysis of human communication in structured organizational settings. Communicating and organizing are inextricably related. The process of communicating affects organizing, and the process or organizing affects communicating. Communication needs to be seen not as a process occuring between any sender of messages and any potential recipient, but in relation to the social system in which it occurs and the particular function it performs in that system. In short, roles as the building block of social systems provide a conceptual framework for describing the interactive relationship between communication and its surrounding social system.

The major tenet is that one's role in a social system dictates his perceptions of that system. That is, the mere fact of occupying a given position within an organization dictates to a considerable degree one's phenomenological view of that organization. Consequently, as evidenced by the theoretical works of Katz and Kahn, Redding, and Guetzkow, and the empirical data provided by Zajonc and Wolfe, Cyert, March, and Starbuck, Lieberman, and Maier, Hoffman and Read, one may conclude that organizational roles not only structure perceptions, but that changing one's role will result in concomitant changes in his perceptions. If organizational roles play as important a part in shaping perceptions as the above writers suggest, should there then be any reason to wonder why superior-subordinate dyads manifest perceptual incongruity? To the contrary, one should be concerned if the dyad were characterized by perceptual congruence. If the latter state did exist, this would mean that the superior perceived the organizational space as did the subordinate, and that the subordinate perceived the organizational space as did the superior. These corresponding perceptions are not only improbable, but would also reflect a dysfunctional superior-subordinate dyad.

There is a related approach for supporting the thesis that total perceptual congruence in the superior-subordinate dyad may reflect a dysfunctional state. Specifically, the approach is based upon an analysis of the task requirements in the superior-subordinate dyad. In order for perceptions in a dyad to be congruent, the data from which the perceptions

are abstracted must be similar. In superior-subordinate dyads, however, the data composing the subordinate's world are different from the data composing the superior's world. The sheer presence of hierarchy dictates that the superior has access to task-related information which the subordinate does not and vice versa. Thus, if the perceptions in the dyad are congruent, one could argue that the superior has access not only to his information but also to that of the subordinate. If such were the case, the dyad would be dysfunctional because there would be no need for the subordinate. Thus far this analysis has argued for and supported the thesis that the "natural" state of task-related perceptions in subordinate-superior dyads is and should be characterized by incongruity.

Thus the crucial question to be asked is not why does perceptual incongruity exist, but rather, what criteria may be used to judge the functional/dysfunctional nature of the incongruity. As a means of specifying these criteria, Sussman turns to the theoretical work of Pondy. According to Pondy, the decision regarding the constructive vs. destructive nature of conflict must be based upon three criteria of organizational performance. The three criteria are: productivity, stability, and adaptability. Productivity refers to the output of the organization and is discussed in terms of both quantity and quality. Stability refers to the steady-state nature of the organization which allows for some degree of predictability in dealing with input. Adaptability refers to that state characterized by flexibility in dealing with new and novel input. Thus, according to Pondy, conflict is destructive if it impairs productivity, reduces stability, or hampers adaptability. Consequently, the author concluded that the "healthy' superior-subordinate dyad is one that constantly experiences some degree of conflict and ceases to be healthy when polarities of the dyad no longer exist.

This article is in opposition with the view that different perceptions within a superior-subordinate dyad is a manifestation of "communication break-down." It takes the position and tells why superior-subordinate conflicts, as manifested by perceptual incongruity, is not only a natural and inevitable consequence of organization, but that conflict under certain circumstances provides a constructive force for the organization.

Brenda J. Webb

"Kenneth Burke and the Inherent
Characteristics of Formal Organizations:
A Field Study"
Phillip K. Tompkins, Jeanne Y. Fisher, Dominic A. Infante,
and Elaine L. Tompkins
Speech Monographs, 42(1975), 135-142.

The purpose of this study was to submit the theories of Kenneth Burke done in the area of formal organization to empirical research. The authors felt that Burke's work--with its key terms of hierarchy, order, mystery, and identification--could be applied directly to the study of organizational communication. Burke was not unaware of the relevance of his ideas to this field of study as evidenced in a paper he presented at Princeton in 1951, but little had been done as a follow-up.

Burke argues that the ordering of man into hierarchies exists everywhere and is inescapable. He believes that hierarchal stratification is inherent in man's ability to use language for the purpose of abstracting categories and in his propensity for "systematic thought". Additionally, the division of labor made possible by man's ability to use tools initiated status differentiations with attendant rights, privileges, and properties, which, in turn, serve to denote status. "'Hierarchy' is the old, eulogistic word for 'bureaucracy'", notes Burke. 'Order' implies authority as well as status and regularity. His own creation, 'mystery', is the corresponding condition to this bureaucratic division. As organizations are created, with layers of authority, those figures on top will be mysterious to those at the bottom and vice versa. This mystery can have positive as well as negative effects. It may be used as an "active way of maintaining cultural cohesion" and "unity of action" among the diverse roles in hierarchies. Out of this condition of ordered estrangement arises the need for identification. Burke sees 'identification' as a means and an end. It can be seen through the rich politician who tells constituents of his humble origins, allies who put aside their own disputes and join forces against a common enemy, or the politician who can label any criticism of his policies as 'unpatriotic'. Identification is the process which smoothes out the estrangement created by hierarchy, order, and mystery.

From this understanding of Burke's theory, the authors formulated a series of rough , exploratory hypotheses as follows:

- The subjects' perceptions of the degree of order and mystery in the upper levels of a hierarchy would vary with the subjects' rank in the hierarchy.
- The subjects would tend to identify with their own rank or level within the hierarchy.
- There would be an inverse relationship between the degree of perceived mystery in the upper levels of a hierarchy and the degree of identification with those levels of the hierarchy.

The authors labeled the hypotheses as 'abstract' because of the ambiguity of the term 'hierarchy', but attempted to correct this by defining the term as denoting all of the levels of a graded system of persons within an organization.

The organization chosen for this study was the State University of New York at Albany. Data relevant to this study were gathered from 319 subjects in the following categories (which roughly follow the status ladder of the organization): administration (N = 13); directors (N = 14); deans (N = 11); governance leaders (N = 11); department chairmen (N = 19); faculty (N = 74); non-teaching professionals (N = 25); students (N = 123); civil service (N = 29). Data from this study were collected during the spring term of 1972. Interviewers were nearly all assigned to subjects at random and the subjects were then numerically coded to assure anonymity.

"Order" and "Mystery" were made operational through the use of seven-interval semantic differential scales designed to measure subjects' perception of the university hierarchy. Twelve pairs of polar adjectives were originally selected on an a priori basis. These data were then submitted to factor analysis and the varimax rotation to simple structure produced three factors which accounted for 67 percent of the total variance in the instrument. An "Order" factor (25 percent of total variance) and a "Mystery" factor (21 percent of the total variance) clearly emerged. The "Identification" construct was measured by means of the paired-comparison technique. Each of the seven hierarchal levels was paired once with each of the other levels.

One hypothesis expected those in the lower ranks to perceive a higher degree of order in the hierarchy than they held. However, data did not fit the expectations and in fact, there was no consistent pattern. The authors expected those in lower ranks to perceive a higher degree of mystery in the hierarchy than would those in the middle and upper ranks. Data supported this hypothesis. In regard to identification, the authors expected that subjects would identify more with their own rank than with any other. Here again, the data fit the authors' expectations. Lastly, by comparing the rankings of the samples according to the mystery factor with their ranking on the weighted identification variable, the authors were able to test their final hypothesis, hoping to find an inverse relationship between the degree of identification with those levels of the hierarchy. Data was supportive here. In short, members of an organization do not identify with levels of the hierarchy they perceive to be mysterious and with which they enjoy little communication.

The authors attributed the surprising results of the order data to a missing element--authority. They felt they had measured "just regularity", not what Burke had intended with the concept of hierarchal order.

The mystery data supported expectations with one exception: civil service employees. Most of the people in this category were secretarial personnel attached to all levels of the hierarchy, and the authors felt that they were therefore outside the system of formal authority.

The authors seemed satisfied that Burke's concepts of mystery and identification were confirmed by the quantitative data gathered, but that it opened the way for improved instruments for order, comparative studies of mystery and identification in other organizations and studies of the mystery reciprocal. More importantly, perhaps, the authors would like to disprove Burke's notion that people will always have the temptation, if not the need, to find and victimize scapegoats in order to purge their guilt over organizational failures. To this end, the authors called for further studies of demystification.

Theodessa Saffer

"Context Effects on the Measurement of Organizational Credibility"
Patrick J. McDermott and Don F. Faules
Central States Speech Journal, 24(1973), 189-192.

This study sought to determine whether a well-known organization, vital to local economy, carried a credibility of its own so strong as to nullify an individual's impact. Earlier research indicated that organizations did indeed carry credibility of their own which could not be effectively altered by prestigious sources or public relations experts. However, that early research involved organizations which were recognizable, but far removed from the respondents. In addition, the study sought to determine if respondents would react differently toward a subsidiary company name than they would toward the parent corporation name. In other words, is the credibility of a local company independent of the credibility of the larger corporation?

Geneva Works, a subsidiary of United States Steel, was chosen for the study. Located in Orem, Utah, the community of slightly over 5,000 was economically dependent on the steel plant.

Trained interviewers gathered data from respondents who were selected in a manner which assured variability in subject population. A total of 123 adults responded to 46 sets of semantic differential scales which were patterned after those used in the earlier study. In addition, a 47th scale, labeled "competitive-noncompetitive", was used to measure competition. Only fifteen of the subjects had relatives that worked at the steel plant.

The data analysis indicated that the credibility of a local company was not independent of the credibility of its parent corporation. However, the results indicated that certain variables, namely the ego involvement of the respondents with the concept, did make a significant difference and that the use of scales that were considered to be generalizable could result in faculty information and misleading analysis. The study points out that, although decentralization makes for autonomy, workers may be aware of their dependence on the parent corporation for support. The parent corporation, for example, may have to finance major equipment improvements. Also, Geneva Work's unique market situation required error-free work to counter considerable product transportation costs. This "teamwork" concept was emphasized in both internal and external communications. Further study was recommended with the workers in the plant where the focus could be placed on internal communication and perhaps shed light on the effects of decentralization. In other words, while this study centered on effects that may have been due to external communication, the results may present more of an issue for studying internal communication.

The results of this study indicated that the use of generalized semantic differential scales is a questionable procedure and may produce misleading information. To counter this, the researcher recommended the addition of another variable--the ego involvement of the respondents with the concept and their intimacy with that concept. An additional precaution should be the use of factor analysis whenever semantic differential scales are employed. The entire study was not discredited, however, as the possible effects of decentralization were highlighted for further study where the focus could be placed on internal communication.

Theodessa Saffer

Pedagogy

Many of the previous sections include articles on pedagogy appropriate to that section. The ones appearing here are almost exclusively concerned with the evaluation technique used in the speech communication classroom (a concern also found in the latter section of the collection of interpersonal communication abstracts).

Mary Jeanette Smythe, Robert J. Kibler, and Patricia W. Hutchings, "A Comparison of Norm-Referenced and Criterion-Referenced Measurement with Implications for Communication Instruction."

Charles Tucker, "Toward Facilitation of Behavioral Objectives in Speech Communication."

Edward L. McGlone, "Educational Measurement and Speech Communication Instruction."

Robert J. Kibler, Larry L. Barker, and Donald J. Cegola, "A Rationale for Using Behavioral Objectives in Speech-Communication Instruction."

William Brooks, "Innovative Instructional Strategies for Speech Communication."

Andrea L. Rich and Arthur L. Smith, "An Approch to Teaching Interracial Communication."

"A Comparison of Norm-Referenced and Criterion-Referenced Measurement with Implications for Communication Instruction"
Mary-Jeanette Smythe, Robert J. Kibler and Patricia W. Hutchings
Speech Teacher, 22(1973), 1-17

There are three purposes to the article: (1) to define the concept of criterion-referenced measurement; (2) to provide several implications that CRM can have for communication instruction; and (3) to discuss problems with implementing CRM in communication pedagogy.

The topic of educational accountibility is a timely issue for the field of speech-communication. A balance of input (capitol) and output (student learning) is necessary if our field of study is to survive. One method for insuring survival is the employment of criterion-reference measurement because it strengthens both educational objectives and instructional effectiveness. CRM can best be defined in terms of contrasting it with norm-reference measurement. Criterion-reference measurement evaluates the student in relationship to a specific set of criteria. This type of evaluation is aimed at determining a student's mastery of a given behavior. CRM can be effective in its application to both written and oral evaluation. CRM tends to reflect the behavioral objectives more than NRM. This is because criteria-reference measurement includes a statement of the specified behavior and a minimum level of achievement.

There are a number of implications that CRM can have for speech education. NRM testing implies that an instructor must obtain variability among the test scores. So distinctions can be made between students for the purpose of grades. CRM testing implies the obtainment of a pre-set level for mastery. Thus, the CRM test item must match with performance. Three steps can accomplish this end: (1) state the behavioral domain to be tested; (2) systematically sample the domain; and (3) follow a standard method for item development. There are validity implications for tests. Tests are supposed to measure the behavior they claim to measure. NRM can be checked by both primary and secondary validity. CRM can be checked by primary validity alone. The focus of validity for CRM is upon well defined judgments relating to the relevance of the test to the specific behavior outlined in the behavioral objectives. There are three implications for CRM test scores in the educational setting: (1) CRM test scores can evaluate the instructor's performance; (2) CRM test scores can provide a valuable pretest of student's behavior; and (3) CRM test scores can provide a valuable terminal test of student's behavior.

Implementing CRM into a communication curriculum may attract some difficulties. One problem is the manner in which the instructor determines the criterion. A systematic set of rules are not available yet to the speech educator. But, there are two guidelines to help in developing the criterion. First, the consequences of the criterion should be considered before adopting it. Second, select a criterion which is obtainable by the student. Another problem is that the instructors tend to be pre-occupied with variability on assignment and test scores. As stated earlier, variability should not be a part of a CRM system.

A third problem relates to item analysis on tests. With CRM, an item should be justified in relation to criterion of mastery rather than in the traditional manner. Another problem relates to the reliability of CRM test items. The best method for solving this problem is to match the test items with the behavioral objectives. The final problem relates to testing procedures as a whole. First, the total learning system to which CRM is integrated should be thoughtfully considered. Second, the instructor should determine whether formative evaluations (frequent exams covering small units of learning) or summative evaluations (exams covering large blocks of learning) will be employed in the course. Third, the length of the test should be determined by the amount of time available and the number of objectives included.

Considering both the strong points and the problems associated with criterion-reference measurement, it appears that this system has real potential for answering the issue of educational accountability for the field of speech-commnnication.

The value of this article to the reader is that it provides a reasonably well developed explaination of CRM and how CRM relates to the field of speech-communication.

Linus H. Brandt

"Toward Facilitation of Behavioral Objectives
in Speech Communication"
Charles Tucker
Speech Teacher, 22(1973), 231-236

Two problems associated with the development of behavioral objectives in speech communication are analyzed with suggestions for solutions. The first problem involves the difficulty of translating existing instructional goals into behavioral terms. The other involves the translation of abstract cognitive and affective goals into behavioral terms.

It was noted that there is an assumed disparity between the requirements of behaviorally-oriented teaching and traditional instruction. The traditional approach to the development of behavioral goals calls for specification of particular behaviors which students should demonstrate. Such an approach places the emphasis on the student as the communicator about his own understanding.

It was suggested that the focus be on the instructor as a communication receiver. Such an approach recognizes that judgments are currently being made and that the information being received by the instructor at any given time actually constitutes student behavior. In other words, behavioral objectives are already being used and the first step in developing objectives which can be consciously used to guide course planning is to become aware of what is already being done. The risk to this kind of approach is that instructors may not like what they find or may find goals they do not wish to reveal to their students. However, the benefits are that: 1) it permits systematic improvement by characterizing present standards in an explicit, analyzable form; 2) it may increase honesty toward students; 3) it permits public discussion of objectives; and 4) it provides a basis for evaluation instruction.

A second presumption in the development of behavioral objectives is that they should be stated specifically and concretely. It is argued that in some instances, this reduces the students' range of choice and creativity, and it was suggested that it may be more desirable to use behavioral goals which are abstract. What is necessary is that abstract goals must be explained in a specific and concrete manner. Carefully-developed and extensive examples can be used to clarify the goal but must not be mistaken for the goal. This type of approach is behavioral in the sense that it describes what should be observed if the instructional program is effective, while it also encourages creative responses by indicating the variety of analyses which might result.

Given the assumption that instruction is improved through the behavioral description of goals, it is necessary to identify and overcome common difficulties in making such descriptions. Tucker's article describes two problems in the development of behavioral objectives. Suggestions for their solution are prescribed and various examples are provided to illustrate the two approaches. The article would be helpful to the communication instructor interested in developing his/her own objectives for use in the classroom.

Donna Jensen

"Educational Measurement
and Speech Communication Instruction"
Edward L. McGlone
Central States Speech Journal, 24(1973), 241-245

There are four ways to determine the effectiveness of a curriculum. First, the goals are determined; second the goals are operationalized in terms of the desirable and undesirable behavior from the student; third, measurement procedures, such as tests, observation and rating scales, are set up to provide an objective method for determining the behavior; and finally, the curiculum and measurement techniques are administered in a controlled situation and an attempt is made to analyze the data obtained. Many teachers in the speech field object to curriculum evaluation because they state the curriculum is set up by their state school boards without consulting them. Also, they state that students are tired of testing and their final argument is that "What I teach can't be measured by objective tests." The analysis of this paper is that the chief obstacle to curriculum evaluation in the speech field is the unwillingness to attempt it.

This conclusion is reached because there are numerous sources for development of a curriculum which can be evaluated. Two valuable sources for this are the 1966 volume of the Journal of Education Measurement: J.T. Hastings, "Curriculum Evaluation: The Why of Outcomes", and Garlie Forehand's "The Role of Evaluation in Curriculum Research." Also available to people desiring to develop evaluation are two chapters from Brooks and Friedrich's text, "Evaluating, Grading and Reporting Speech Performances" and "Teacher-Made Tests." Even though there are numerous sources to gain the needed information, there are few journal articles which give actual accounts of this being done, hence the conclusion that it is not being done because of an unwillingness.

In answer to the teacher complaint that the school boards set up curriculum without consulting them, it should be noted that most school boards are willing to listen to evidence that comes from "controlled objective research." They did listen to and adopt tracking of students, standardized tests, and green "black" boards. Therefore, if teachers want the school boards to listen, they must be able to present the desired research.

Another worry expressed by the teachers, that of too much testing, can be answered simply in relation to curriculum evaluation. Tests should be used as a device to identify strengths and weaknesses of a program. They can tell a teacher how well a class is progressing and how much the instruction is helping to accomplish. Finally, tests can be used as a review and to determine if students can apply the material just covered. Tests do not equal grades.

The final concern expressed by teachers, that of measurement, is answered by Rober Ebel who stated: "Every important outcome of education can be measured." A teacher should not be the only judge of the instruction. It is important that educators in speech learn test construction, rating scales and observational techniques along with other forms of measurement. If this evaluation is begun, both teachers and students will gain valuable

information and educators will have the resources they need to convince "school decision-makers" the importance of what they are doing.

This article is important for anyone considering evaluation and may be even more important for teachers who are not. It provides a bibliography to the sources of information needed not only for evaluation, but test construction as well. Anyone who is now teaching or planning to teach can benefit from reading this article.

Carla Deckert

"A Rationale for Using Behavioral Objectives
in Speech-Communication Instruction"
Robert J. Kibler, Larry L. Barker, and Donald J. Cegola
Speech Teacher, 19(1970), 245-256.

The purpose of the article is two-fold: (1) to help speech teachers become aware of the values in behavioral objectives; and (2) to help speech teachers employ behavioral objectives in their classes. The article is divided into four sections: (1) classification of objectives; (2) reasons for using behavioral objectives; (3) controversies about behavioral objectives; and (4) prospect of using behavioral objectives in speech pedagogy.

Objectives can be defined on two levels. First, the general objectives which are statements or broad educational goals. Second, the behavioral objective is named such because of the behavioral dimensions associated with this objective. The behavioral objective can also be defined on two levels: (1) informational objectives; and (2) planning objectives. Both describe the behavior, its end product and who will perform it. The planning objective goes on to further describe "the relevant conditions under which the behavior is performed."

There are half dozen reasons for employing behavioral objectives. First, the writing of behavioral objectives cause the instructor to set goals in teaching which define the desired communication behavior. Second, the behavioral objectives describe measurable communication behavior from the student upon the successful completion of a learning unit. Third, the behavioral objectives provide meaningful and well defined criteria for evaluation of the students communication behavior. Fourth, the behavioral objectives provide the student with a self evaluative tool by which to learn communication behavior. Fifth, the behavioral objective provides the student with discrete and realistic communication behavior which can be demonstrated and which are obtainable. Sixth, the behavioral objectives encourage the student to improve his/her communication behavior.

There is some controversy associated with behavioral objectives. The controversy can be articulated in the following questions: (1) does the discipline of speech-communication have the data base to state desired communication behaviors for students? (2) are the behavioral objectives useful when the validity of their content is not certain? The first question would probably be answered negatively. But scholars in the field should be working toward creating a sufficent data base. The second question can be answered affirmatively because many of the content areas will probably be taught anyway.

Behavioral objectives have made a profound influence on the American educational system. Behavioral objectives have the same potential for influencing speech education if speech educators will accept behavioral objectives in their classes.

The value of this article is that it provides the reader with a clear but concise understanding of behavior objectives and how they can improve speech pedagogy.

Linus H. Brandt

"Innovative Instructional Strategies for Speech Communication"
William Brooks
Today's Speech, 20(1972), 39-47.

There are many who have taken it upon themselves to be bitterly critical of American education. Paul Goodman, John Holt, Herbert Kohl, James Herndon, Irving Kozal, Judson Jerome, Alvin Toeffler, and others have called attention to the failure of instructional methods without providing any constructive suggestions. Their counterparts suggest new and innovative procedures that they claim will remedy the problems faced in the classroom, new and innovative procedures that are also radical and unproven. This article does not suggest the failure of the educational system, nor does it suggest that we adopt unproven procedures; it does suggest that there are at least three innovative instructional strategies that are strong new trends in communication education that have proven their worth in the secondary school systems.

These three instructional strategies are: (1) mini-courses, (2) games and simulation, and (3) the utilization of learning environments outside the classroom. The principles that govern each of these strategies are that students will learn better when they: know what they are trying to learn; value highly what is to be learned; are actively involved in learning processes; and have feedback and confirmation of learning.

Mini-courses have been used effectively at a number of high schools around the nation, and when the courses have been structured by the instructor or instructional team, they have proven themselves to be worthwhile instructional tools. Together with the proven need for intelligent structuring, there is a shown need for activity-oriented instruction so that the student will be actively involved in the course and will be able to receive instant feedback and confirmation of learning.

Games and simulation have some weaknesses that should be understood and dealt with. Overuse reduces the impact of such experiences. Emotional content of the games and/or simulations can be beyond the students' copeing abilities. The inability on the students' part to translate certain games and simulations into a learning experience sometimes occurs. And, some of these activities require the student to play certain roles that are not condoned by society. If, however, attention is paid to these drawbacks, the games and simulations that do not contain such weaknesses are very valuable. Games are goal-directed and simulations involve the student in "real-life" experiences. The goal-orientation and simulated "real-life" experience allow the student: to know what they are supposed to learn; the pleasure of winning; active involvement; instant feedback and reinforcement.

Outside the classroom the student meets with the world. In this "face-to-face" confrontation, the student finds the concrete reinforcement and definition of his or her need to learn the basics that will aid their success. Students are also confronted with a wealth of knowledge that can only be learned with "life-experiences" that can only be found outside of the classroom. However, the instructor must be able to guide the students toward the learning situations and to support those learning experiences. This type of learning is not only in the high school, but is being found in more and more institutions of higher learning such as Open University systems and England's "lighthouse effort".

These alternative strategies are not the answer to all of the problems that education faces today. These alternatives are, however, proven and effective instructional methods that can aid the teacher and the student in the learning experience.

This article not only provides three educational strategies and their strengths and weaknesses, it also provides a format for investigation of other strategies of instruction; it can provide the teacher with an insight into today's educational system.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

"An Approach to Teaching Interracial Communication"
Andrea L. Rich and Arthur L. Smith
Speech Teacher, 19(1970), 138-144.

In any discipline concerned with human communication, the course dedicated to the study of interracial communication and designed to promote interracial understanding and interaction must have its place.

General objectives for such a class would include: the familiarization of the student with general communication theory, and teaching the student to apply the knowledge of communication theory in the diagnosis of communication problems and breakdowns. Specific objectives would include: (1) discovery of attitudes toward self and/or subject matter and/or the communication receiver, (2) terms of value systems, (3) terms of positions held in the social-cultural system, and (4) levels of knowledge of the subject.

It is suggested that David Berlo's communication model (Source-Message-Channel-Response) serve as a superstructure for organization of class activities. The source's encoding of message into symbols, and the receiver's decoding of that message, reflect the problem of message fidelity that is so important to interracial communication. In using this model we include three more specific objectives in the course. Students will have to be able to demonstrate the disparity in language codes and how that affects effective interracial communications as well as engage in discussions of aspects of race relations and interaction problems which concern them. The students will, also, demonstrate their understanding of projection of overt and covert intents that affects source and receiver.

A suggested method of teaching such a course is the Dialogue-Lecture method which uses an interracial team of teachers that will discuss topics in dialogue fashion. Such a team would provide insights into the formation of concepts through creative dialogue, and the worth of interracial dialogue. There is another reason to favor such an approach: if a black or a white ran an interracial course there could be problems with students feeling that there is partiality or a lack of understanding on the part of the instructor. Also, small group discussion and laboratory observation of those small group discussions should be used to aid the understanding of the specific objectives of this course.

Selected class assignments could include work which would teach the significance of value systems, the need for interracial communication, attributes of attitude, and language differences and similarities. Students could be sent into the ghettos in role-reversal situations to build a black lexicon and experience the problems of that area.

Evaluation emphasis in grading projects and essays that would be the basis of course grades would be on the innovation and creativity demonstrated, and on the diagnostic ability of the student. In the class discussions, students would be graded on their abilities in avoiding communication breakdowns, their ability to correct such breakdowns, and their abilities in perception, diagnosis, and curing communication problems.

This 1970 article may seem dated to the reader, but many of the concepts are still valid. This course design points up many of the possible problems of such a course as well as many of the reasons for creation of such a course.

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

Potpourri

This is a collection of important articles that would not be included in any of the previous sections. This group ranges from self-criticism of the field and exhortations for the future to frameworks for career opportunities in the field.

This section is the last of the ninety articles abstracted. To the reader who has diligently read all the previous material in search of an understanding of the field and appreciation for its body of knowledge, please do not use it solely as ironic that the last article is titled "...but What Can I do With a Major in General Speech?"

Gerald R. Miller, "Humanistic and Scientific Approaches to Speech Communication Inquiry: Rivalry, Redendancy, or Rapprochement."

Robert C. Jeffrey, "Speech and the Humanities: Departmental Philosophy."

Donald C. Bryant, "Retrospect and Prospect: 1970."

James E. Roever, "New Orleans, Wingspread and Pheasant Run Briefly Revisited."

K. Phillip Taylor and Raymond W. Buchanan, "Vocational Marketability of Communication Competencies."

Kathleen M. Jamieson and Andrew D. Wolvin, "Non-Teaching Careers in Communication: Implications for the Speech Communication Curriculum."

Jane Work, "Out of the Ivory Tower and into the Marketplace."

Kenneth R. Williams, "...but What Can I Do with a Major in General Speech?"

"Humanistic and Scientific Approaches to Speech Communication Inquiry: Rivalry, Redundancy, or Rapprochement"
Gerald R. Miller
Western Journal of Speech Communication, 39(1975), 230-239.

The perceived gulf between humanistic and scientific students of speech communication was a burden to the field for years. Although recently the rivalry seems to have died down, it still seems worthwhile to establish distinctions among various approaches to inquiry. To view such an effort as redundant is to miss the understanding that can be gained by defining both the terms and their inner workings. Three major reasons for a scholarly question-asking will be delineated, along with their relationships to each other.

The first major reason speech communication scholars ask questions is for the purpose of developing empirical statements that possess generalized predictive and/or explanatory validity. This motive charaterizes the scientific approach to speech communication inquiry. The focus of his inquiry is on the generalized predictive and explanatory validity he can discover.

The second reason students of speech communication may ask questions is for the purpose of drawing factual conclusions about a specific communicative phenomenon. This motive characterizes part of the humanistic approach. The assumption here is that certain specific situations and individuals are of sufficient interest and import to merit investigation in and of themselves.

The third reason for inquiry by speech communication scholars may be a desire to arrive at ethical or aesthetic judgments of communicative phenomena. This motive characterizes the other part of the humanistic approach. The goal of this type of inquiry is to articulate reasoned value judgments about a communicative act, or acts.

All three of these reasons for inquiry may call for such tools of research as content analysis and previously developed sets of generalizations. Yet that does not make all such activity scientific. In the pursuit of scientific inquiry, a scholar may introduce concepts and terminology commonly associated with humanistic thought. It is also possible that in the pursuit of one type of inquiry, the researcher may develop an interest in the other type and change purposes. What determines the approach to inquiry is the researcher's purpose for posing and pursuing the question.

These three motives are all needed if the goal of research and scholarship is to arrive at the fullest possible understanding of the complex process of speech communication. Yet to assert that scholars working in these areas can complement each other is not to say that they are all doing the same thing. Perhaps the reason previous efforts to delineate differences in various approaches failed was due to their basically self-serving interests. If the distinctions can be drawn to place scientific and humanistic approaches in a complementary, rather than an identical or an antagonistic posture, perhaps rapprochement can be made.

The need for multiple approaches to speech communication inquiry has been adequately demonstrated. Their relationships should be clear after reading this article. The student of speech communication, having read and accepted this presentation, can now move forward with inquiry, no longer burdened with the question of which approach has more merit.

David A. Bullock

"Speech and the Humanities:
Departmental Philosophy"
Robert C. Jeffery
Southern Speech Communication Journal, 41(1976), 158-164.

The article is a reproduction of a speech. After the customary opening cliches, comments are directed toward the crisis of the shift from humanistic trends in education to vocational trends. The educational system has allowed the marketability of graduates to dominate. The system is not training students to think and analyze independently and to distinguish "facts from propaganda and truths from half-truths and lies." Only through the humanistic values can real education of minds be of value to the nation.

Testimony of authorities in speech related vocational fields and statistics lend creditability to the existence of the crisis. Charles Guggenheim, twnety-year media political campaign organizer, said that students are coming out of college quite able to operate any machine or name the parts of the machine, but they are unable to caculate the validity of what they send to the public through the machine. Because of this the media can be manipulated by outsiders in order to "shade" the news. (An example being Watergate) Between 1967 and 1974 there was a thirty-three percent loss in verbal aptitude of students taking the Scholastic Aptitude Test. At the University of California at Berkley, forty-five percent of the entering freshmen required remedial work in English.

There are several reasons for the existence of this crisis. One is the changing social trends of students seeking relevance in society. This search has caused more student discontent and apathy, and because of students' attitudes schools have begun innovative teaching methods emphasizing motivation and neglecting education. A second reason is education's dependency upon public monies. Since government (the public) is paying for more segments of educational institutions there has been a demanded shift from quality to quantity in education. In turn, both of these reasons have forced many teachers to give up on the thought processes of students and concentrate on the production ability. Fred Hargaden, Dean of Admissions at Stanford University, identifies one of the reasons for illiteracy as television and visual media in general. These visual aids present problem solutions disallowing any thought process of the viewer.

Because students are losing the ability to connect thought with its proper symbol, this article is of definite value to challenge students' thoughts about the quality of their education. The article exposes a crisis which transends the limited boundries presented, and is an article which should be given top priority in students' reading.

Jeanette McDaniel

"Retrospect and Prospect: 1970"
Donald C. Bryant
Quarterly Journal of Speech, 57(1971), 1-10

The article is an edited manuscript of the President's address which Donald Bryant presented to the members of the Speech-Communication Association during its national convention in New Orleans in 1970. The article briefly surveys the history and points toward the future of the field of Speech-Communication.

Around the turn of the century speech was a sub-division of English departments in most universities in the United States. As time progressed speech scholars and teachers became discontented with the climate, status, and academic freedom in the English departments. In 1913 and 1914, the forefathers of the speech-communication field seceded from the English establishment and founded speech as a separate field of academic study.

Since academic freedom was at the heart of the English and speech conflict, it would seem reasonable that scholarship and pedagogy would be the key tenants of the speech field. Winans and Woolbert have handed down a rich teaching heritage to speech professionals. Wichelns, Hudson et. al. have handed down a rich heritage of scholarship to speech professionals.

The forefathers of the speech-communication field spent considerable time expressing their differences with their former English ties. The present generation spends too much time dealing with the "academic and scholarly pecking order" and defending their field's educational domain. The rhetoricians and the behavioral scientists of the present generation have been fighting an ongoing battle. The present generation of speech-communication professionals should turn their energy away from these conflicts and pursue more learning, more research and a more humane scholarship.

The new SCA division of rhetoric and communication theory should bring the behavioral scientist of the New Orleans conference and the rhetorican of the Wing Spread and Pheasant Run conferences together for the purpose of humanistic study and speech instruction. Professionals in the field of speech-communication should pool their energy, their genius, their imagination, their enterprise and their wisdom if speech-communication professionals are to meet the challenging problems of the future.

The value of this article is that it provides the reader with glimpse of the history and heritage of the field of speech - communication.

Linus H. Brandt

"New Orleans, Wingspread and
Pheasant Run Briefly Revisited"
James E. Roever
Western Speech, 38(1974), 7-12.

The purpose of the article was to make an assessment of where the discipline of speech-communication was at; where it was going in the short term future, and several suggestions on long term goal setting for the discipline.

The article began by briefly reviewing a number of contemporary conferences held by speech-communication scholars. At the New Orleans Conference the behavioral or scientific research approach to studying human communication came of age. The other conferences, Wingspread and Pheasant Run, gave the rhetorical approach to studying human communication a vote of confidence.

In 1970 the Speech-Communication Association created a new division of scholarship by combining both the rhetoric division and the behavioral sciences division to make the division of rhetorical and communication theory studies. With this step the discipline seemed to unify two competing factions into one unified group.

During the early seventies most communication departments thought of the future in terms of the next four of five years. But the author of the article recommends a more contemporary orientation to future goal setting: "futurism." With this new type of orientation the discipline would project goals in terms of two or three decades in the future instead of four of five years in the future. For this orientation to work, rhetoricians and scientists would need to work hand in hand toward an understanding of human communication.

The value of this article to the reader is that it gives the reader a glimpse of the contemporary history of the speech-communication discipline. It offers a broader and deeper orientation toward future study of human communication.

Linus H. Brandt

"Vocational Marketability of Communication Competencies"
K. Phillip Taylor and Raymond W. Buchanan
The Southern Speech Communication Journal, 38(1973), 285-291.

This article focuses on the problem of vocational opportunities for the individual with an academic background in speech communication. The problem was considered severe enough to warrant attention at the 1972 Summer Conference of the Speech Communication Association. Spokesmen from business and industry reported that while employers could identify the need for speech communication competence and identify career opportunities, the current supply of college graduates far surpassed the demand. For some time, the teaching profession absorbed a number of communication specialists, but that changed and the Office of Education began reporting the growing surplus of teachers.

The problem thusly identified, the authors suggest two possible courses of action. The first, and admittedly irresponsible possibility, would be to put the entire job responsibility onto to students. The second option would be to ascertain the communication needs in industry and to prepare students for those areas.

In keeping with the second option, survey questions were sent out to 183 businesses and governmental agencies in the Southeast. Each organization was asked five questions concerning the importance of communication to their operation, potential problems in communication, and the need for supervisory personnel with communication training. The 42 percent who responded to the questionnaire ranked the following criteria in hiring a person for a managerial or supervisory position: (A) Ability to get along with others; (B) Technical skills; (C) College degree; (D) Leadership training including communication skills and public relations; and (E) Previous work experience. On the basis of these rankings, organizations responding were categorized as "Technical-Skills Oriented" or "Non-technical Service Oriented". Of major concern to the researchers was the importance attached to (a) the ability to get along with others and (d) leadership training. The response to both was significant. The resultant information indicated that industry's perception of potential problems in organizational communication suggested a need for personnel trained to face these problems. The results clearly indicated that industry needed and wanted individuals with backgrounds in communication. The areas of need (employee, customer, and public relations, personnel and management development, internal and external publications, and sales) were suggested by the questionnaire respondents themselves. A somewhat negative side issue came to the surface when several respondents indicated their total lack of familiarity with communications as an academic discipline.

The article charges the professor of communication to ensure that the student's training in communication is adaptable, relevant, and marketable, in addition to keeping both the communication major and his potential employees abreast of the rewarding possibilities each offers the other. This is, of course, the more responsible of the two options identified at the beginning of the study.

Theodessa Saffer

"Non-Teaching Careers in Communication:
Implications for the Speech Communication Curriculum"
Kathleen M. Jamieson and Andrew D. Wolvin
Communication Education, 25(1976), 283-291.

For those with an interest in the field, the usefulness of a degree in speech communication in the current marketplace is a most timely concern. The traditional career goal of teaching in this area is a diminishing option, necessitating a serious study of alternative means of employment. This study must not only be made by the student himself, but also by university speech communication departments, if they are to maintain a realistic approach to education.

A questionnaire used to survey forty-two graduates of the M.A. program in Speech Communication at the University of Maryland within the past five years asked the respondents to describe their positions, assess the competencies required by these positions, and evaluate the adequacy of their preparation for their chosen career. Those with positions in teaching and those pursuing further education were excluded from the study. The survey revealed positions in three basic categories, described some specific training needed for specific jobs, uncovered two interesting limitations in the field, and demonstrated the need for early and careful career planning.

The positions described can be categorized as (1) employment in federal, state, or local governmental agencies, (2) employment on or related to Capitol Hill, and (3) employment in trade and professional associations and in private industry. Included in the first category were positions as a personnel analyst in county government work, a management analyst with the federal Civil Service Commission, and an employee development specialist with the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. Capitol Hill positions included case work, legislative correspondence, legislative research, press work, speechwriting, work with the electronic media, and lobbying. Those in the private sector included positions as public relations directors, communcation directors, communication analysts, and speaker/speechwriters.

Some specific suggestions for those interested in specific areas of employment were mentioned by the respondents. Support work in journalism was recommended for those interested in public relations or communication directorships. In addition to journalism, those on Capitol Hill recommended support work in government and politics. Those employed as communication trainers suggested courses in industrial psychology and adult education. Research analysts called for additional preparation in the areas of quantitative methods and interviewing. In general, co-curricular activities and internship programs were emphasized as worthwhile by most respondents.

The limitations in the field that surfaced were both related to job satisfaction. Women were consistently paid from $1,000 to $3,000 less than men in identical positions, except in the federal government. Secondly, of the 90% of the students surveyed who had held teaching assistantships while at the university, 20% reported a preference for teaching experiences to those they currently held.

In evaluating their training, most felt they had been adequately prepared. Two important factors emerged. The university made efforts to guide students in their decisions, through a careful study of the needs of the immediate area to determine the positions available and then tailoring their programs to meet competencies required to secure them. The students, for their part, emphasized the need to decide early on a goal, so maximum career directed studies and training could be obtained.

This survey gives a student of speech communication some very significant information in terms of career opportunities outside of teaching and necessary preparations to qualify for such positions. Secondly, it serves as a challenge to other universities to tailor their programs to the needs of students graduating in their own geographic areas. Finally, it makes clear the need to recognize that an education in the "liberal art" of speech communication should and can lead to earning a living.

David Bullock

"Out of the Ivory Tower and into the Marketplace"
Jane Work
Communication Education, 25(1976), 317-319.

It is clear that in the future more and more speech communication majors will seek employment outside the well known ivory towers. The demand for new college faculty is rapidly diminishing. Yet the need for those possessing speech communication skills in business, industry, and government is at an all time high. A problem is that many of these sources of employment fail to realize that speech communication majors have the skills and competencies they need. Speech communication educators must address a second problem They must be sure that the education provided is career relevant.

The career-related speech communication competencies must be first identified at each institution. One survey reported that most speech communication departments have not identified these competencies. Those which claimed to have done so, however, have reported them only as course titles, not competency descriptions.

A second challenge is for the departments to recognize the needs for related studies in pursuing career goals. Not only must the department determine the career needs, they must help students define their own career goals. Both exploring the field and counseling their students to meet the needs of the field are responsibilities of the speech communication departments.

The fundamental needs, then, are for identifying groups of functional speech communication competencies, relating them to specific career clusters, guiding students into curriculum patterns that will assure them the opportunity to utilize their knowledge of human communication, and making their abilities known to potential employers.

The challenge to the reader is to be sure that he recognizes the need to prepare adequately and specifically enough to fill a need. The challenge to speech communication departments is to follow the suggestions outlined which will lead to better career preparation. Both needs must be recognized and met if speech communication as a study is to grow as it could.

David A. Bullock

". . . but What Can I Do with
a Major in General Speech?"
Kenneth R. Williams
Western Journal of Speech Communication, 35(1971), 124-129.

This article is presented in the form of a problem-reasons-solution essay. The problem presented and examined is that of the career value of a General Speech major. It is a problem common to all speech departments and a problem which must be solved if speech departments are to survive.

The major reason for the problem is departments' reluctance to face said problem or in cases when the problem has been faced the tendency to attempt such simple solutions as renaming the major. (Example: changing the name General Speech to Organizational Communication.) "False" solutions like that can only temporarily attract students. Another reason is that far too many speech departments are academically oriented rather than career-oriented. An adjunct to this is that society is becoming increasingly career conscious and students seek reassurance of jobs before committing themselves to a major field of study. A third reason for lack of career-oriented speech departments is the problem of finding qualified staff members to carry out pre-professional programs if a curriculum were to be devised.

A solution or criterion upon which to base a change in curriculum is that courses should be organized in a way that (1) "prepares students to be better qualified than their competitors for specific career entry positions"; (2) "enables students to progress more rapidly and successfully through professional and on-the-job training programs"; (3) "gives students some inherent advantages over their competition in occupational mobility and career progression". Included is a minimal list of seven specific abilities that a career-oriented graduate of a General Speech curricula should possess: (1) ability to select only essential information; (2) ability to select effective course of action; (3) ability to arrive at well-reasoned solutions; (4) ability to coordinate plans and actions; (5) ability to adapt to changing conditions; (6) ability to maintain superior performance; (7) ability to present information efficiently. Also included is a warning that a pre-professional speech program must keep the major in the speech context and not attempt a specialized training program in any given area.

Desire is the only real "stumbling block" to a pre-professional approach within a speech department, and until speech departments establish a pre-professional approach, students interested in the speech area will continue to question the value of a General Speech major. To help those interested in pre-professional approaches Williams concludes the article with the illustration of the program design of a pre-professional speech career in Air Traffic Control.

A student may use this article to (1) identify a pre-professional speech education, (2) recognize the abilities that a pre-professional program can teach, and (3) evaluate a speech department in relation to pre-professional training available. The article gives an understanding of how a speech department may interact with other departments to form a "total career picture". The article is limited in that it does not indicate any place to fine additional information about pre-professional speech training.

Jeanette McDaniel

Critical Reviews of Literature: A Selection of Research Papers

David A. Bullock, "Small Group Decision Making: A Review of the Literature, 1970-1975." 151

Donna Jensen, "Focus and Evaluation In the Interpersonal Communication Course: A Review of the Literature." 158

Theodessa Saffer, "Research in Self-Concept and Its Measurement: 1970-1977." 170

Brenda Webb, "Symbolic Interactionism." 176

Small Group Decision Making: A Review of the Literature, 1970-1975

David A. Bullock

In the development of communication theory, an area of particular value to those outside the field is decision making in small groups. Especially in business, the need is great for effective procedures to increase the facilitation and quality of decisions. Whether the level of the decision is great or small, predictive formulations for the success of the group decision hold great interest. This, then, is a review of the literature published in speech communication journals between 1970 and 1975, inclusive, concerning decision making in small groups.

Decision making is often equated with problem solving. Since task groups in other than experimental laboratory situations are often faced with activities which involve both kinds of behavior, the two will be treated as interchangeable. The fact that differences in definition can and often are proffered will not be denied. For the purpose of this review, however, both are important and so closely related as to be indistinguishable. In short, the behaviors which facilitate decisions and improve their quality affect both decision making and problem solving activities in the same way. In reviewing the literature, the usefulness of the findings for application in actual small group decision making situations will be considered in each case.

Two articles have appeared during this time period which offer recommendations for future research. Gouran[1] calls for more research which would increase communication theory through concentration on some specific areas relating to decision making. Such focus of efforts would yield answers with which to generate reliable predictive theories. Fisher[2] concludes that the task and socio-emotional dimensions of a group are inseparably interdependent. He calls for direct observation of communicative behavior in the process of group interaction. Although both of these articles suggest some very relevant needs for future study, this information has value only to those whose chief interest is in carrying out such research.

Ten articles report experiments relating to decision making/problem solving variables. All have something to offer in terms of both theory building and practicle application. In Nelson, Petelle, and Monroe's report,[3] a new twist is added to an old idea. The use of a topical system to aid the creative process of brainstorming was tested in the small group setting. The results indicate that topical terms aid in the generation of creative ideas by giving focus to the technique and thereby increasing the quality of the ideas generated. Thus, if one can supply a list of terms which relate to the question under discussion, one could expect an increase in the quality of the output as a net result.

Leathers[4] posited and found a direct relationship between levels of abstraction and disruptive feedback response, and between levels of facetiousness and disruptive feedback response. The feedback response became increasingly confused, tense, and withdrawn as the level of abstraction of stimulus statements moved from low to high. The feedback response became increasingly personal and inflexible as the level of facetiousness

moved from low to high. These findings on the degree of disruptiveness of feedback to such stimuli have some very specific meanings in practical application. In training persons to function in small group settings, it should be stressed that input which is concrete and sincere will be most facilitating in reaching a decision.

In an experiment on distributional and sequential structure of communication in problem solving and informal groups, Gouran and Baird[5] reported that problem solving groups did not show greater structure than informal groups. Both types tended to possess a relatively low tolerance for disagreement. However, in the problem solving groups, responses to disagreement were resolved by supplying pertinent information rather than by personal expression of disagreement. The application of this finding is more in the realm of knowing what to expect in practice. As Gouran and Baird mentioned, a statement by statement analysis such as they used does not really show all that causes a given response. In fact, as I consider it, it seems that people sometimes "tune out" the preceding statement in preparation for speaking, thus eliminating any possible effect it might have on what they say. This behavior, if accepted as a common possible pattern, would negate the findings of any statement by statement analysis.

In an experimental study of quality of group communication as a determinant of group results, Leathers[6] found that facilitated communication produced much higher quality solutions. Facilitation was through such procedures as keeping records of ideas on which concensus was reached; following a set organizational format; brainstorming; summarizing lengthy contributions; positively reinforcing clear, concise expressions; and establishing continuity by relating contributions to the immediately preceding contribution. Each of these provide natural steps for implementation in practical application.

Bell[7] reports the relationship between high substantive stimuli and feedback response and between high affective stimuli and feedback response. In each case, the response followed the pattern of the stimulus. Thus to get more substantive results, the input must be more substantive.

Larson and Gratz[8] compared two methods of teaching skills and attitude for small group discussion. T-Group training was compared to the standard problem solving discussion course. The differences in the two methods were slight in terms of eliciting open-mindedness and critical thinking. However, T-Group training did produce greater problem-solving accuracy, probably due to more actual application of the concepts in the course. Both methods offer ways to increase all three behaviors, as shown in advances beyond a control group. The need to teach methods to facilitate small group decision making becomes obvious.

The effects of reward criteria were studied by Saine and Bock.[9] They found in their experiment that the condition which produced a competitive atmosphere for reward produced more competing analytic statements. The condition which produced cooperation produced more socio-emotional messages. Following Bell's findings mentioned above, the more analytic statements should yield more analytic responses, thus raising the level of the entire discussion. Furthermore, the sequential

structure was much higher in the competitive atmosphere than in the cooperative one. If sequential structure can be shown to correlate with more effective decisions, then it might indicate a need to produce some form of individual reward structure in actual practice. Since this experiment offered as rewards potential grade advantages in introductory speech courses, however, the experiment may have yielded more competition than other, more intangible rewards such as would likely be afforded individuals in more practical situations.

An experiment contrasting the size of a group with the distributional and sequential structure was performed by Saine, Schulman, and Emerson.[10] They found that groups of four and six members yielded much higher distributional structure (measured across eight content categories) than two and eight member groups. In terms of sequential structure, the amount of structure was inversely proportional to group size. In application, these findings would seem to indicate that four to six member groups afford better discussion structure overall than larger or smaller groups.

The effect of verbal agreement on leadership maintenance in problem solving discussions was studied by Lumsden.[11] She found three areas of significance relative to verbally agreeing leaders: Such leaders were perceived as more objective; members gave stronger support to agreeing leaders; and they expressed more concurrence with the group decision when the leader expressed agreement throughout the discussion. If such resultant behaviors are directly related to good decision making, then leadership which emphasizes verbal agreement should be a prerequisite in leader selection.

The other experiment reported during this time-frame studied the effects of female leadership in small problem solving groups. Yerby[12] found that attitudes toward female role identification and sex composition significantly affect the responses of group members toward a female leader and toward the group. Specifically, in a population hostile to female leadership, a woman does better with all male subordinates. She fares better in a mixed group in a population of individuals receptive to female leadership. Here again, if good leadership yields good decision making, these are also important considerations in structuring small groups.

There were seven field studies conducted in the area of small group decision making between 1970 and 1975. The findings provided some useful application possibilities, but in some cases, were more restricted in scope.

In a study of patterns of verbal task behavior in decision making, Fisher[13] found four phases which he labeled orientation, conflict, emergence, and reinforcement. Orientation was characterized by getting acquainted, clarifying, and tentatively expressing attitudes. The characteristic of the second phase is dissent. The third phase is characterized by the dissipation of conflict in the form of comments ambiguous toward the decision proposals. Phase four has a characteristic pattern of predominantly favorable attitudes consistently receiving positive reinforcement. These phases may not always appear in every group striving for a decision, but they do offer a possible means of monitoring the process. Of particular value to the development

of further communication theory is this demonstration that interaction patterns can be observed directly, free from the overt influences of the socio-emotional dimension.

Valentine and Fisher made a study of verbal innovative deviance in small groups.[14] Focusing on the four phases he reported above, he found verbal innovative deviance to be quite acceptable during the conflict phase and, to some extent during the emergence phase. Such deviance was detrimental during the initial and final phases of orientation and reinforcement, however. This, then, confirms the acceptability of verbal innovative deviance at certain points, at least, in small group decision making.

Tucker found some interesting communication patterns in his study of academic policy making.[15] He found that faculty committees do not behave according to their formal description. They are autonomous, unpredictable, and heavily committed to delay until consensus is reached. Consequently, they tend to resolve very little. Though of consequence to universities, this study offers little for the world outside of academia.

In another study by Fisher,[16] some more useful understandings were made known. Two patterns of decision modification emerged. The first was modification by lowering the level of abstraction of the language in which the proposals were framed. The second was to re-introduce proposals in modified form at approximately the same levels of abstraction. Consciously following these two patterns in small group decision making may very well yield better decisions, or at least faster decisions.

Grunig studied the dimensions of communication in community groups facing low-cost housing.[17] Montgomery County, Maryland, a suburban area just outside Washington, D.C. was selected as the site for this study. Grunig found that individuals and groups communicate with other individuals and other groups which perceive the problem in the same way they do. They also better understand persons or groups with which they have been communicating more than those with which they have had little communication. The consequent alienation which the poor feel in trying to give input to the community decision process is most apparent. A second implication of this study is that communication in the community is quite segmented. These findings give some insight into the problems of communication at the community level.

Kline studied orientation and opinionatedness in small group problem solving discussion.[18] He found some quantifiable indices of both variables which should be useful in relating them to consensus. Recognition of the variables might have limited use to group participants.

Finally, Mears studied communication networks in business organizations.[19] He cited findings of the effectiveness of the circle, free circle, wheel, and chain networks in various decision making situations. There were reasons for changing from one to another, but the change always brought a decline in productivity until the members adjusted to it. The effects noted in this study, though interesting, are not necessarily applicable to other situations. Mears did not really draw any definitive conclusions for future application.

The literature in the field of small group decision making reviewed has offered some valuable insights. Looking back through it, one finds several behaviors which will facilitate better decision making. Other ideas are also available to help understand the process. However, there are some areas where further research is indicated. If the areas of research Gouran and Fisher indicate are followed through, even more valuable understanding should be brought to light. Perhaps then that segment of communication theory will be reasonably complete, facilitating reasonably accurate predictions.

Footnotes

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[5]Dennis S. Gouran and John E. Baird, Jr., "An Analysis of Distributional and Sequential Structure in Problem-Solving and Informal Group Discussions," Speech Monographs, 39(1972), 16-22.

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[15]Charles O. Tucker, "Faculty Communication and Academic Policy," Central States Speech Journal, 24(1973), 212-221.

[16]B. Aubrey Fisher, "The Process of Decision Modification in Small Discussion Groups," The Journal of Communication, 20(1970), 51-64.

[17]James E. Grunig, "Communication in Community Decisions on the Problems of the Poor," The Journal of Communication, 22(1972), 5-25.

[18]John A. Kline, "Indices of Orienting and Opinionated Statements in Problem-Solving Discussion," Speech Monographs, 37(1970), 282-286.

[19]Peter Mears, "Structuring Communication in a Working Group," The Journal of Communication, 24(1974), 71-79.

Focus and Evaluation In the Interpersonal Communication Course: A Review of the Literature

Donna Jensen

The 1970's brought change to the speech discipline. In fact, it might be suggested that the discipline evolved into speech communication. Decreasing emphasis was placed on teaching basic public speaking and voice and articulation, while colleges and universities increasingly offered interpersonal communication courses as the basic speech offering.[1]

This changing focus is examplified by the program at Kansas University.[2] In 1967, 11 sections of a new interpersonal communication course were offered while 40 sections of public speaking were scheduled. In 1970, 56 sections were offered in interpersonal communication and only six in basic public speaking. A 1969 study by the School of Education showed that interpersonal communication was the most popular required course when in 1966, 50 percent of seniors surveyed wanted to abolish the speech requirement.

It has been suggested that the increasing emphasis on interpersonal communication arose in response to student demands in the 1960's that course offerings should be more "relevant to the real world."[3] People living in an age of transition found their values in flux and teachings which focused on the self and self-actualization became popular. Ilardo stirred controversy among speech scholars when he suggested that the popularity of interpersonal communication reflected "a widespread need for therapy."[4] Jandt replied that interpersonal communication was not mass therapy but the academic study of how values and self-identity are formed through face-to-face interaction.[5] He argued such study was consistent with the academic tradition in the speech discipline.

The newness, the complexity, and the controversy surrounding interpersonal communication has apparently contributed to problems in a concrete conceptualization of interpersonal communication as the definitions are many and varied.[6] After reviewing various aspects of defining interpersonal communication, Cushman and Florence suggested it might be viewed as:

> . . . the transfer of symbolic information which has as its principal goal the coordination of human activity in regard to the presentation, development, and validation of individual self concepts.[7]

If this definition can serve to explain what interpersonal communication is, the question still remains, what actually happens in the interpersonal communication classroom. What does one learn when he learns interpersonal communication? How does one teach it? How does an instructor know when learning has occurred? A number of speech scholars have addressed the subject of what objectives should serve as the framework for the interpersonal communication course and what activities could be conducted to facilitate achieving these objectives. The purpose of this paper is to review the literature on interpersonal

communication instruction and to identify various approaches to course content and objectives. Specific attention will be focused on the methods of evaluation which have been developed for use in the interpersonal communication classroom.

Literature Review

One of the first concerns of speech scholars interested in developing the interpersonal communication course was to determine what should be the focus of the course. The following seven authors suggested various approaches to organizing course materials and activities.

Mehrley and Backes called for a "revolution" in introductory speech courses, suggesting there was a lack of evidence that students could transfer principles learned in public speaking courses to other forms of interaction.[8] They contended that formal individual oral performances should not be included in the course, but that active two-way communication exchanges should be encouraged to increase students' understanding of the communication process.

A similar approach was proposed by Schuelke in the consensus model.[9] He suggested that a wide range of communication-related subjects could be used as materials and that specific interests and activities could be identified through consensus between the instructor and the students. Schuelke suggested that a course focus on the broad field of communication would provide the opportunity for a "greater understanding of historical, critical, experimental, and social ramifications of communication."[10]

Stewart proposed that beginning courses focus on the transactional nature of interpersonal communication and the importance of personal involvement to instill in students an appreciation for the uniqueness of different relationships.[11] Stewart suggested the term, interpersonal communication, could be approached as a quality term referring to a desirable level of interaction.

The role which interpersonal relationships play in the socialization process was the focus suggested by Jandt, whose own course concepts are related to the continuing process through which each individual acquires awareness of his own uniqueness.[12] Jandt reported that such a program is geared to developing an intellectual understanding of a set of concepts and principles which underlie the speech communication process and attitudes, feelings, values, and skills which contribute to effective communication.

Rossiter also concluded that skills should be emphasized in interpersonal communication and that the course could even be organized around the particular skill of metacommunication.[13] Such an approach would help to focus conscious attention on the process of interaction, familiarize students with metacommunication and help them to feel comfortable using it in exercises and structured experiences.

Balance between a behavioral orientation and a cognitive orientation was argued for by Conville.[14] He suggested:

> Cognitive goals by nature deal with things inside the student. The place to look, therefore, is into the learner's concrete, personal unique experience of communication learning.[15]

Conville suggested that since no universal rules for appropriate communication behavior exist and that judgments of appropriateness must stem from an individual's experiences, the teaching process should be built around experiences.

W. Barnett Pearce suggested that a "humane scientific" approach should direct the course.[16] He said such an approach is rooted in the social sciences and emphasizes meanings and mentalistic terms as well as behaviors. Thus, this approach strikes a balance between cognitive and behavioral objectives.

Each of these authors were primarily concerned with identifying central themes for the interpersonal communication course. The chronological development of the course is reflected in these approaches. The first approaches were geared to broadening the public speech focus to include other forms of interaction while later articles suggested focusing on specific interpersonal skills. While these articles suggested overall objectives, little attention was focused on measuring attainment of these objectives.

Other scholars have considered specific kinds of activities which might be undertaken in the classroom. Numerous exercises and projects have been prescribed in textbooks and instructors' manuals. The few activities which are reviewed in this paper reflect supplementary activities described in speech journals and conference papers. These activities reflect three approaches: 1) self-analysis, 2) the case study method, and 3) computer simulation.

In response to a need for more effective assignments in communication courses, Zima developed a self-analysis inventory.[17] Students were asked to complete an eight-item questionnaire which asked the student to assess his/her own effectiveness as an interpersonal face-to-face communicator, to describe situations in which he/she had the most difficulty communicating, to discuss attitudes and values which affected his/her interpersonal communication, and other probes about communication behavior. The students then met in small groups to share and discuss this information which allowed them practice in giving and receiving feedback. This exercise was reviewed because it was suggested that such an activity could serve as a starting point for teaching interpersonal communication skills and, thus, might be considered as a central focus of the course.

A similar inventory was developed by Bienvenu.[18] A 50-item questionnaire enabled the individual to assess his/her own communication behavior while it also suggested effective ways of talking, listening, responding and coping with feelings. Bienvenu suggested it could be used for teaching specifics of interpersonal communication.

Cassandra Book proposed that students should set their own goals with help from the instructor.[19] To facilitate attainment of these goals, she suggested the teacher and students work together to design classroom activities and materials.

A second type of activity which could serve to organize an interpersonal course approach is the use of case study analyses. McAdoo and Nelson defined this activity as the use of "actual or hypothetical communication situations which demonstrate how communication concepts function in human relationships."[20] They noted that there is little current research on the use of case studies, but suggested that such an approach could be used throughout a course to help students internalize concepts. They suggested that students could be asked to analyze cases, write conclusions for incomplete cases, role play certain cases, or even write their own case studies.

A third activity which might serve to define the teaching methods of an interpersonal course is computer simulation. Jandt predicted that in the future, computers will be increasingly used in instruction and simulations.[21] The Coordinated Science Laboratory at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign has had PLATO (Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations) in operation since 1960 and over 100,000 student-contact hours have been logged. The instructor designs material which the computer presents to the students while monitoring and evaluating their performance. For example, one unit in the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory's Program permits the student to employ differing strategies in trying to persuade a parent to agree to let him go on a date. The computer provides parental responses to each statement made by the student. Jandt suggested interpersonal communication courses might eventually rely extensively on computer simulations in which a model of some external reality is provided through which students could interact in much the same way they would in reality. Jandt noted such an activity has long been used in management training.

These scholars have contributed specific activities which might serve as focal points of an interpersonal communication course. However, as the first articles reviewed discussed only objectives, these articles focused on activities with little emphasis on developing an entire program complete with evaluation. A few scholars have attempted to design an entire course framework and these articles are reviewed in the following section.

Nelson described five objectives for the interpersonal communication course: 1) to develop in students a sense of responsibility for what and how something is said and towards the person to whom it is said; 2) to bring about in students a self-change in the direction of greater self-insight, more open and tolerant attitudes toward those with whom they speak, a less judgmental approach to the beliefs and opinions of thers, etc.; 3) to stimulate the students to acquire a deeper insight and understanding of the nature, functions and effects of the processes of communication and interpersonal interaction; 4) to improve the ability of students to speak and participate effectively in interpersonal and small group speaking situations; and 5) to search for and identify a set of factors that study and experiences demonstrate to be important in order for communication and inter-relating to be effective and satisfying.[22] A variety of activities were

conducted to facilitate attainment of these objectives. Students were tested at mid-semester and at course conclusion, wrote brief evaluations of articles on selected reading lists, participated in a series of small group discussions, attended three 15-minute conferences with the instructor, wrote communication logs evaluating in-class activites and out-of-class communication behaviors, and conducted interviews with campus leaders and business officials. In addition, they completed self-evaluations and were asked to evaluate three other students in the class. Nelson studied the relationship between points earned in class and self-rated improvement scores and found a Spearman rank-order correlation of .79 which he considered to be reasonably high. He suggested that:

> The greater majority of the students in this class felt that their improvement in ability to communicate and relate meaningfully with others resulted from a sharper awareness of their own interpersonal attitudes and habits from a more accurate concept of themselves and their own general personality.[23]

Nelson suggested there was a need for more research on methods and procedures to affect inner and subjective changes in students. Nelson's test of self-improvement ratings is one of few efforts to examine the efficacy of interpersonal evaluation measures.

Wackman and Miller proposed a course which offered the following objectives: 1) to teach a number of interpersonal skills; 2) to provide a conceptual understanding of the skills as well as behavioral learning; and 3) to facilitate the transfer of learning to the students' out-of-class relationships. Four frameworks were utilized to organize course materials. The Awareness Wheel framework provided information on sensations, interpretations, feelings, intentions and actions. It served to organize information about the self and helped to determine choices about self-disclosure. The Shared Meaning Process framework emphasized empathy and the Communication Styles framework helped students identify desirable and undesirable choices of interaction styles. The I Count/You Count Framework was similar to the I'm Okay/You're Okay position used in transactional analysis. Both conceptual and experiential learning were facilitated through the use of mini-lectures, tape recordings, group discussions and exercises, dyad exercises, testual readings and analyses of communication situations. Grades for the course were based on evaluations of student papers. In assessing the program's efficacy, Wackman and Miller noted that the course was based on the Minnesota Couples Communciation Program, a program developed to teach married couples how to communicate more effectively. They reported that the results from several well-controlled studies of this program indicated that the large majority of couples "do change their communication behavior."[24]

Specific attention was directed to the problem of evaluation by Bochner and Kelly:

> Assessment of skills has not been emphasized because there is not paradigm on which to base the measurements. To assess

something, we must know what it is we are measuring.[25] Bochner and Kelly proposed a complete course framework which they suggested could serve as the basis for assessment. The overall objective of the framework is to develop interpersonally competent individuals and five specific skills are emphasized: 1) empathic communication, or the capacity to identify the emotions communicated by another person; 2) descriptiveness, which deals with specificity of expression; 3) owning feelings and thoughts, or the ability to identify and communicate attitudes and feelings to other; 4) self-disclosure, which is voluntarily telling another person things about the self which the other is unlikely to know or discover from other sources; and 5) behavioral flexibility, or the degree to which a learner can identify and focus on specific ways of behaving differently when necessary. Bochner and Kelly suggested the use of lectures, interpersonal labs, executive planning sessions, readings and examinations to facilitate skill learning. They noted the various contributions of these strategies to providing either cognitive or experiential learning. They listed three ways in which learners could be assessed: self-ratings, peer-peer ratings and observational ratings. They suggested that:

> When the same behaviors are rated at all three levels using the same method, we expect the results to be highly inter-correlated. In practice, however, this result does not usually occur. Previous research indicates that peer-peer and observer ratings correlate significantly but self-ratings do not.[26]

Consequently, Bochner and Kelly felt that scores could be obtained with all three measures and be weighted according to their acknowledged reliability estimates and the degree to which they inter-correlate. The emphasis on evaluation by Bochner and Kelly makes this one of few attempts to provide a complete framework for the interpersonal communication course.

Bochner and Yerby conducted an empirical study of factors affecting instruction of the Bochner-Kelly framework. They hypothesized that the more a learner experiences his/her peer teacher as interpersonally competent, the higher that learner's own interpersonal achievement is likely to be. They also hypothesized that measures of intellective ability and previous performance would be significantly associated with cognitive achievement on interpersonal communication.[27] Demographic data, grade point averages and verbal SAT scores were collected for 653 students enrolled in the basic course at Cleveland State University. Subjects also completed inventories evaluating their peer leaders' behavior and their own feelings of competence at the end of the course. Correlations revealed that a peer leader's effectiveness was a factor which affected learning and that GPA's and SAT scores were positively correlated with student test scores, suggesting cognitive development as a factor affecting learning in this framework.

A second empirical study was conducted using the Bochner-Kelly framework by Fieweger and Yerby.[28] They found that the more congruent a student's value orientation with that of the course philosophy, the

greater will be the chance of the student performing well in the course. These empirical studies are of importance because they represent an attempt to systematically investigate various factors which affect the process of learning interpersonal skills. Fieweger and Yerby concluded that there is a greater need for applying social science research methods to the practical problems of course development.

These approaches which attempted to construct an overall course framework began to deal with the problem of learning evaluation. Seven other articles specifically focused on evaluation problems.

One writer proposed that all evaluation should be based on the contractual method.[29] Book noted that the very concept of evaluation is defense-arousing and may serve to interfere with the learning of non-defensive communication skills. She proposed that teachers identify objectives for each grade, the conditions for completing the objectives, the methods that will be employed to evaluate the process, and the time period within which the contract must be met. This method of evaluation may eliminate part of the threatening nature of evaluation, but it still does not provide a basis for determining if a student has completed an assignment satisfactorily. In other words, the problem persists that the instructor is not free from subjective observation in determining if learning has occurred.

Smythe, Kibler and Hutchings proposed that a criterion-referenced measurement (CRM) system be used.[30] CRM evaluates a student's progress relevant to a specified performance standard rather than to the progress of his peers. They also suggested that tests could be administered which are constructed on the basis of the specifications in the performance standards and that these tests could serve as evaluation instruments.

Tucker suggested instructors should begin to develop evaluation measures by translating their existing instructional goals into behavioral terms.[31] He argued that we already make judgments about students' capabilities based on such behavioral manifestations as their ability to explain a concept in a few sentences or their use of a particular vocabulary developed in the course. He noted that:

> All of us have behavioral objectives. All of us already evaluate on the basis of our behavioral objectives. The first step in developing objectives which can be consciously used to guide course planning is to become aware of what we are already doing.[32]

Tucker also suggested that behavioral objectives do not have to be concrete and specific as is commonly assumed, but rather that the goal must be illustrated concretely. In other words, abstract statements of behavioral goals with carefully developed and extensive examples can serve equally as an evaluation standard.

The problem of developing evaluation tools was also recognized by Leib-Brilhart who noted that instruments for assessing communication behaviors are widely scattered throughout the social science literature.[33] She reported that the Speech Communication Association module of the

ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills has commissioned a state-of-the-art paper which will present, in a conceptual framework, a compilation of current procedures and instruments for assessing functional communication competence.

The need for evaluation was further explored by an empirical study by Tortoriello and Phelps. They studied the relationship between a student's performance on a cognitive examination and his ability to identify the most appropriate interpersonal strategy for a given situation. The students were given a description of an interpersonal situation and asked to determine the most appropriate course of action according to interpersonal theory. The low correlation they found between student's scores on those practical application exercises and other cognitive exams raised certain questions about the assumption that interpersonal skills are taught in the course. The researchers suggested there is a need to explore the relationship between cognitive level and the ability to transfer information.[34]

Makay argued that the transferral of course concepts to the real world is not the teacher's responsibility.[35] Makay contended that accountability is not a matter of measurement of transfer of learning to the outside world, but rather a matter of making courses real, genuine and pragmatic with substance, activity and measurement within the course.

These authors underscored the critical need for refined measuring instruments which can provide an objective and non-threatening system for determining if learning has occurred. Certain suggestions for evaluation tools were also provided.

Summary and Conclusions

A variety of approaches exist for organizing concepts in the interpersonal communication classroom. A general consensus seems to be that cognitive and behavioral objectives need to be balanced. Two overall objectives seem to be common to most approaches: 1) to provide the student with an understanding of the concepts and principles of the communication process and interpersonal communication effectiveness, in particular; and 2) to provide the student with certain identifiable skills which can be used in effective interpersonal communication. More effort might be directed to identifying specifically the skills which should be developed. Bochner and Kelly's interpersonal competency model is one of few attempts to provide such concreteness. Systematic study of factors affecting the learning of these skills was conducted for the Bochner-Kelly framework and could be expanded.

While various philosophies have been discussed as the basis for interpersonal communication course objectives, and a variety of activities have been designed, the final step of determining if these objectives are facilitated with these activities has been given little systematic attention. The part of Schuelke's consensus model in which he advocated pretesting of attitudes and knowledge might be more fully

investigated. Pretesting might allow the basis for a judgment that learning has, in fact, occurred. The study by Tortoriello and Phelps suggested a negative relationship between traditional cognitive exams and application of interpersonal skills. Further research on the relationship between cognitive understanding and practical application might be undertaken. Bochner and Kelly suggested observer ratings, peer-peer ratings and self-ratings as means for evaluating in-class activities but noted that more research needed to be conducted to determine the reliability of these methods.

In addition, there are other specific issues which future researchers might address. First, Tortoriello and Phelps' testing instrument which utilized interpersonal situations to which the student was to respond with an appropriate strategy, might be tested further as an evaluation instrument for the course. The principles of this test are also very similar to the computer simulations described by Jandt, which might hold potential for the future.

One final issue which might be raised stems from a distantly-related article by Burgoon uncovered during the course of this research. In an empirical study, Burgoon found that a student's willingness to manipulate others was correlated significantly more positively with his ability to perform in an interpersonal communication course than a public speaking course.[36] Burgoon concluded that:

> The lack of structure in the communication course allowed high Machiavellian persons to persuade more, manipulate others to his desired ends, and receive a higher grade in the course than low Machiavellians.[37]

The concern arises that if instructors do not provide reliable and accurate means of evaluation, they may, in fact, find themselves responding to manipulation, and rewarding students for skills more indicative of their ability to control others as opposed to effectively communicating with others. This example is used to demonstrate the complications that could be posed in the absence of reliable evaluation measures.

Essentially then, two areas for future research have been identified. The need for measuring learning is obvious. However, the problems of measuring learning can really only be identified after it is determined what specifically it is that students should learn.

FOOTNOTES

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2 Charles N. Wise, "Special Report: A Prolegomena to a Study of the Antecedents of Interpersonal Communication," Today's Speech, 20 (Fall 1972), 60.

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"Research in Self-Concept and its Measurement: 1970-1977"
Theodessa Saffer

Studies in self-concept are not new. Neither is interest in self, but as a theoretical concept, study of the self has been an on-again, off-again project. In the seventies, self-concept study is on-again.

Each attempt to study self-concept began with the need for a definition. This has been no easy task since self-concept (or any of its related names--self-esteem, self-actualization, self-satisfaction, self-evaluation, self-respect, self-worth, ego, ego-identity) is extremely popular in past and present literature and is used to explain a broad variety of behavioral phenomena. Even though there is no universally accepted definition of the self, most researchers accept a distinction between two aspects of the self--one inferred by an external observer and one of which the person himself is aware. Most early inquiry into self was carried on through examination of personal identity. In Hume's A Treatise of Human Nature in 1740, he wrote:

> For my part, when I enter most intimately into what I call myself, I always stumble on some particular perception or other, of heat or cold, light or shade, love or hatred, pain or pleasure, I never can catch myself at any time without a perception, and never can observe any thing but the perception. When my perceptions are removed for any time as by sound sleep; so long am I insensible of myself, and may truly be said not to exist.

This elusiveness of the empirical self remains an unsolved problem of measurement.

Probably the first empirical attack on the problem of self was that of E.B. Titchener in 1935. Titchener had defined three ways in which the self might become conscious: a class of mental processes may carry self-meaning, the self may be felt in body sensations, or it may be inherent in all conscious experience. He then asked his students to introspect for any trace of consciousness of self; and from their answers, which did not fall into the above categories, he concluded that psychology could not be defined as the science of the self.

Even though this type of experiment was very different in method from modern test of hypotheses concerning the self, it did introduce the notion of measuring intrapersonal activity--messages created and sustained within the individual. This makes the study of self-concept the province not only of sociologists, psychologists, and psychiatrists, but of communicologists.

The individual concept of self determines the kind of messages created. This concept of self is determined by the ideas and attitudes individuals have about who they are and what they become in the presense of others. These ideas and attitudes are created through a process of judgment and evaluation--sometimes from the individual, sometimes from social interaction, but always subject to the individual's perception. All of these areas are measureable. This paper addresses itself to examining studies which have attempted to measure self-concept--self is seen by self, as seen by others, or as perceived by self--with the emphasis being on the validity of the measurement tool.

Most of the methods of measurement currently being used will fit into one of the following broad categories:[2]

1. Social Ranking Techniques-The respondent is asked to compare himself (and sometimes others) on a trait with some specific collection of other persons.
2. Self-Evaluative Techniques-The respondent is asked to identify himself by supplying his own self-descriptions. The "Who Am I?" measure and the "Who Are You?" techniques are illustrative here.
3. Total Domain Techniques-This approach seeks to assign every response given to some category within a classification system. This approach is primarily directed toward assessing the total self-concept rather than a related work or component like self-esteem.
4. Specific Category Techniques-This system focuses attention upon particular types of responses, rather than the entire set of responses to the instrument. This procedure involves counting the number of times or the proportion of the total number of responses when a respondent gives a particular type of response.
5. Self-Rating Techniques-The respondent is asked to code his own responses to several self-descriptive statements by rating whether or not each statement on the list indicates something good or bad about himself.
6. Unstructured Interview Techniques-This is usually a face-to-face interview which deals with what the respondent is willing to say about himself as indicators of his self-perception and feelings. The routine is unstructured, but content areas to be covered are specified in advance.
7. Projective Techniques-While the other techniques have dealt rather directly with the respondent's phenomenal and conscious self-regard, this technique attempts to deal with the respondents unconscious, unwitting, or unwilling self-evaluation.
8. Ratings-By-Others Techniques-The individual is rated by persons other than himself in terms of public or social esteem and inferred self-esteem.

Most of the studies related to self-concept use some form of self-disclosure as a measuring tool. Jourard[3] argues that self-disclosure is of utmost importance in understanding man and his problems. The individual who is able to disclose himself is mentally healthy, lives a longer and healthier life, and is generally happier and more productive. In 1970, Maslow gave his description of the self-actualized person and included in it the belief that the self-actualized person is open and frank in his intimate relationships--one who acepts himself and who accepts others. With these concepts as a basis, Jourard devised a self-disclosure questionnaire which has been widely used by researchers.

An article by Rowan Bayne[4], however goes so far as to suggest that the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (JSDQ) is unlikely to be a valid measure of self-disclosure or authenticity as used in Jourard's theory of "mental health." Two brief definitions of self-disclosure or authenticity are "being oneself honestly" and "the process of making the self known to other persons." Jourard's central proposition is that people do not disclose their "real

selves" but instead, "perform" and pretend with behavior which tends to reduce awareness of what the self is really like. Self-disclosure in Jourard's theory means accurate, deliberate, and predominantly verbal portrayal of one's real self to others. A necessary condition for this kind of self-disclosure is an awareness of self which is fairly complete and accurate. Bayne's criticism of the JSDQ is that it does not allow for the false self-disclosure central in the theory. An attempt to allow for this was made in an early version by adding the response category X: "Have lied or misrepresented myself to the other person so that he has a false picture of me", but subsequent studies on the difficulty of getting people to admit misrepresentation and of their being able to admit it (Mayo) show that either people who do disclose falsely do not admit this on the JSDQ. This does not eliminate the usefulness of the JSDQ, but an operational distinction must be made between "real" self-disclosure and "false" self-disclosure if Jourard's theory is to be useful in a scientific sense.

Another questionnaire in common use among those researchers who systematically examine self-phenomena, is the "Who Am I?". It also has met with criticism. The objectives of the McPhail[5] study of 1972 were to discuss some of the theoretical and empirical issues surrounding some of these criticisms and to present data which had bearing upon those issues. Once again, the instrument places considerable emphasis on the individual's knowledge of himself. To check on the reliability of the responses, McPhail asked subjects to estimate what percentage of persons, in a position to know about each self statement, would agree with the accuracy of the statement. In response to Franklin and Kohout's criticism, an additional check was made by comparing the subject's judgments of their self statements in matters of common knowledge and the researchers' classification of the same statements. Although the findings did raise serious questions about some of the basic assumptions and principles in "self theory", the "WAI?" was not considered to be a useless technique for generating data statements about self phenomena. The validity of an instrument is a function of whether or not it produces data statements that correspond to the empirical referents specified by the theoretical definition of the concept under examination. Since "selves" is defined as "those overt and covert behaviors which the person addresses to his own past, present, and/or future activities and experiences", McPhail felt that the "WAI?" met specifications. In the thousands of answers to the question "Who Am I?" there have been few instances in which subjects failed to write down or provide oral responses which designated, evaluated, or provided prescriptions regarding their past, present, and future activities and experiences. In McPhail's view, the "WAI?" did generate a valid, though situated, sample of self statements.

The amount and quality of self-disclosure will continue to be investigated since it is an integral part of any research of self-concept. The 1977 Shapiro & Swensen study had as its core the purpose of determining the relationship between self-disclosure and the self-concept of both the person disclosing and the person to whom the disclosure was being made. It was hypothesized that persons with high self-concept would be more dislosing, and since high-disclosing persons tended to "pull" more disclosure from the person with whom they were interacting it would be expected that subjects would disclose more to a target person who was high in self-concept than they would to a person who was low in self-concept.

The subjects for this study were 105 male and 105 female introductory psychology students at two colleges. Self-concept was measured in a group through the Self-Concept Scale and thereafter classified as high self-concept, medium self-concept, and low self-concept. Subjects were paired to provide pairs of all possible combinations of sex and self-concept and instructed to participate in a dialogue with each other. At the end of the interaction, the members of the pairs separated, and each filled out the self-disclosure scale for what his partner had disclosed and another for what he had disclosed about himself.

The study was different from most previous studies in that previous studies have used self-report of what a person has disclosed to significant target people in his life, such as mother, father, spouse, or friends. In this study the self-disclosure was determined by how much a subject actually disclosed in a dyadic interaction. The results, however, were not significantly different. The actual self-disclosure of subjects is a function of the level of self-concept of the subject. People who have a high self-concept are able to be more open with others and therefore form better relationships with others.

Even though the results were not unique, this study is one more illustration of the use of self-disclosure as an important measuring tool for the study of self-concept. In recent years, an area of communication research which has been receiving increasing attention, concerns people's motivations to communicate. A question central to a study done by McCroskey, Daly, Richmond and Falcione[6] is whether there is a relationship between communication apprehension of self-esteem. Some researchers felt, like McCandless (1970) that "the literature is consensual that a good self-concept is related to other indices of social adjustment". In any interpersonal encounter a basic requirement is communication. Yet for some, communication experiences have been unrewarding, indeed punishing, and as a consequence these individuals avoid situations where communication might be required. This level of apprehension has been related to an individual's willingness to engage in self-disclosure (Hamilton, 1972; McCroskey & Richmond, in press), feelings of isolation and ineffectiveness in social activities, and ability to discuss personal problems (Heston & Andersen, 1972), especially with significant others such as parents.

The conclusion of most research concerned with the development of self-esteem may be summarized simply: individuals derive their feelings about self from their interactions with others. Cooley labeled this initially the "looking glass self" and subsequent theorists support such an interpretation. Research has provided empirical evidence as well. Individuals seek out those who confirm their self-image. The research evidence is strong that individuals will modify their conceptions of self over time so that they are congruent with their perceptions of what others think of them. This is an inherent danger in using self-report for measurement and one example of the cause of so much criticism of the validity of the of the measurement of self-concept.

The results clearly indicate that lowered self-esteem is associated with high oral communication apprehension and must be considered in the delineation of the communication apprehension construct. The consistency of these results suggests that the theoretical relationship between oral communication apprehension and self-esteem is not specific to any one subject population, such as college students--the group with whom most previous

work has been done. Nor is the relationship specific to any single measure of self-esteem or oral communication apprehension. The theoretical relationship is generalizable to adult populations, and across self-esteem and oral communication apprehension measures.

Each of the techniques used in the afore-mentioned studies depends heavily on college subjects for self-report. NcNemar criticized social scientific research as being largely a "science of the behavior of sophomores"[7]. Support for this contention came in a survey of research literature published in journals in the 60's, which revealed that over 80 percent used college students as subjects. Charles Rossiter[7] sought to ascertain the degree to which the validity of recent communication experimentation might be subject to this same criticism. Rossiter concluded that communication scholars rarely provide sufficient information to allow critical evaluation of crucial aspects of validity, that the validity of communication experimentation may be severely limited by the nature of subjects studied and by sources of invalidity related to the reactive nature of the experiment as social situation.

Admist disagreement about the theories of self-concept and criticism about its various methods of measurement, traditional theories of self-concept are being supplanted by two rather intriguing new theories of self-knowledge[8]. Self perception theory (Bem, 1967, 1972) is addressed to the processes whereby an individual makes self-attributions by observing his own overt behavior and the circumstances in which the behavior occurs. Objective self awareness theory (Duval & Wicklund, 1972; Wicklund, 1975) is concerned with the attributional and behavioral concomitants of an individual's self-focused versus one-self-focused attention. Perhaps this emphasis on perception will remove some of the doubts of the validity of self-report measurements.

The communication scholar needs to place more emphasis on acceptable standards for adequacy of reporting of experimentation. He can no longer be unconcerned about subject-related threats to validity. Attempts must be made to use more natural settings and samples from other than captive student populations. Great care must be taken to avoid potential threats to validity in experiments. Communication experiments are conducted in classrooms much more than are psychology experiments. Perhaps efforts might be made to make communication experiments as similar as possible to psychological experments so that the social psychological research used in building theory about human communication will be more justifiable. At the very least, attempts must be made to understand threats to validity and how they operate in communication experiments as they are currently conducted. These measures would seem an absolute necessity to protect the credibility of such a young discipline as communication theory.

FOOTNOTES

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Symbolic Interactionism

Brenda Webb

The term "symbolic interactionism" has come into use as a label for a relatively distinctive approach to the study of human group life and human conduct. The scholars who have used the approach or contributed to its intellectual foundation are many. The historical development of symbolic interactionism has been traced by several writers. Its roots are to be found in the rationalism of John Locke, the foreshadowing of the role-taking process by such Scottish Moralists as David Hume and Adam Smith, the idealist epistemology of Kant, and other diverse sources.[1] Its emergence as a distinct perspective occurred in the work of John Dewey, Charles Horton Cooley, James Mark Baldwin, William I. Thomas, Florian Znaniecki, and most notably, George Herbert Mead, the chief architect of symbolic interactionism.

Despite significant difference in the thought of such scholars, there is a great similarity in the general way in which they viewed and studied human group life. The concept of symbolic interactionism is built around this stand of general similarity. There seems to be no clear formulation of the position of symbolic interactionism, and above all, a reasoned statement of the methodological position of this approach is lacking.

Symbolic interactionism rests in the last analysis on three rather simple premises. The first premise is that human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that the things have for them. The simple premise that human beings act toward things on the basis of the meaning of such things is much too simple in itself to differentiate symbolic interactionism. There are several other approaches that share this premise. A major line of difference between them and symbolic interactionism is set by the second premise, which refers to the source of meaning.

The second premise is that the meaning of such things is derived from, or arises out of, the social interaction that one has with one's fellows. There are two well-known traditional ways of accounting for the origin of meaning. One of them is to regard meaning as being intrinsic to the thing that has it, as being a natural part of the objective makeup of the thing. The other major traditional view regards meaning as a psychical accretion brought to the thing by the person for whom the thing has meaning. The meaning of a thing is but the expression of the given psychological elements that are brought into play in connection with the perception of the thing; thus one seeks to explain the meaning of a thing by isolating the particular psychological elements that produce the meaning. Symbolic interactionism views meaning as having different source than those held by the two dominant views just considered. Instead, it sees meaning as arising in the process of interaction between people. The meaning of a thing for a person grows out of the ways in which other persons act toward the person with regard to the thing. Thus, symbolic interactionism sees meanings as social products, as creations that are formed in and through the defining activities of people as they interact.

The third premise is that these meanings are handled in, and modified through, an interpretative process used by the person in dealing with the things he encounters. While the meaning of things is formed in the context of social interaction and is derived by the person from that interaction, it is a mistake to think that the use of meaning by a person is but an application of the meaning so derived. The use of meanings by a person in his action involves an interpretative process. This process has two distinct steps. First, the actor indicates to himself the things that have meaning. The making of such indications is an internalized social process in that the actor is interacting with himself. It is an instance of the person engaging in a process of communication with himself. Second, by virtue of this process of communicating with himself, interpretation becomes a matter of handling meanings. The actor selects, checks, suspends, regroups, and transforms the meanings in the light of the situation in which he is placed and the direction of his action. It is necessary to see that meanings play their part in action through a process of self-interaction.

Symbolic interactionism is grounded on a number of basic ideas. These basic ideas refer to and depict the nature of the following matters: human groups or societies, social interaction, objects, the human being as an actor, human action, and the interconnection of lines of action. Taken together, these basic ideas represent the way in which symbolic interactionism views human society and conduct. They constitute the framework of study and analysis. I will describe briefly each of these basic ideas.

Nature of Human Society or Human Group life. Human groups are seen as consisting of human beings who are engaging in action. The individuals may act singly they may act collectively, and they may act on behalf of, or as representatives of, some organization or group of others. The import of this simple and essentially redundant characterization is that fundamentally human groups or society exists in action and must be seen in terms of action.

Nature of Social Interaction. Group life necessarily presupposes interaction between the group members; or put otherwise, a society consists of individuals interacting with one another. The activities of the members occur predominantly in response to one another or in relation to one another. Symbolic interactionism recognizes social interaction to be of vital importance as a process that forms human conduct instead of being merely a means or a setting for the expression or release of human conduct. Put simply, human beings in interacting with one another have to take account of what each other is doing or is about to do. They are forced to direct their own conduct or handle their situations in terms of what they take into account. Thus, the activities of others enter as positive factors in the formation of their own conduct; in the face of the actions of others one may abandon an intention or purpose, revise it, check or suspend it, intensify it, or replace it. One has to fit one's own line of activity in some manner to the actions of others.

Nature of Objects. The position of symbolic interactionism is that the worlds that exist for human beings and for their groups are composed of objects and that these objects are the product of symbolic interaction. An object is anything that can be indicated, anything that

is pointed to or referred. An object may have a different meaning for different individuals. The meaning of objects for a person arises fundamentally out of the way they are defined to him by others with whom he interacts. From the standpoint of symbolic interactionism human group life is a process in which objects are being created, affirmed, transformed, and cast aside.

The Human Being As An Acting Organism. The human being is seen as an organism that not only responds to others on the non-symbolic level but as one that makes indications to others and interprets their indications. A human being can be an object of his own action. The human being who is engaging in self-interaction is not a mere responding organism but an acting organism.

The Nature of Human Action. The capacity of the human being to make indications to himself gives a distinctive character to human action. It means that the human individual confronts a world that he must interpret in order to act instead of an environment to which he responds because of his organization. He has to cope with the situations in which he is called on to act, ascertaining the meaning of the actions of others and mapping out his own line of action in the light of such interpretation. He has to construct and guide his action instead of merely releasing it in response to factors playing on him or operating through him.

Interlinkage of Action. As stated earlier, human group life consists of, and exists in, the fitting of lines of action to each other by the members of the group. Such articulation of lines of action gives rise to and constitutes joint action--a societal organization of conduct of different acts of diverse participant. The joint action has a distinctive character in its own right, a character that lies in the articulation or linkage as a part from what may be articulated or linked.

The general perspective of symbolic interactionism sees a human society as people engaged in living. Such living is a process of ongoing activity in which participants are developing lines of action in the multitudinous situations they encounter. They are caught up in a vast process of interaction in which they have to fit their developing actions to one another. They live in worlds of objects and are guided in their orientation and action by the meaning of these objects.

Criticisms of the general symbolic interaction perspective are summarized below:[2]

(1) Interactionism places an over-emphasis on self-consciousness; it plays down, ignores, or makes light of both the unconscious and emotive factors as they influence the interactive process.

(2) Symbolic interactionism is guilty of an unwarranted demotion of the psychological; it has robbed human needs, motives, intentions, and aspirations of their empirical and analytical reality by treating them as mere derivations and/or expressions of socially defined categories.

(3) The interactionist perspective has come to have an obsession with meaning. The social world is too often viewed as a mere adjunct to symbolic analysis, and both social change and social structure are lightly treated.

(4) Interactionists too often see only the pejorative implications of the fragmentation of self, and they too readily assume that multiple

identities are merely the unfortunate and dysfunctional end-products of a fragmented system of human relationships.

(5) Symbolic interactionism's relativistic analysis of social interaction often results in an over-emphasis on the situation and an obsessive concern with the transient, episodic, and fleeting.

(6) Interactionism espouses a metaphysic of meaning. There is a danger that a fetish will be made out of everyday life, especially if the perspective comes to give a totally relativistic account of human interaction.

While it would be a mistake to contribute all of the basic ideas of symbolic interactionism to a single person, George Herbert Mead may well be called the "father" of symbolic interactionism.[3] To Mead the inclusion of meaning and thought was crucial to the understanding of human behavior, for those characteristics are what make it essentially different from all other animal behavior. The crucial difference is the human ability to use vocal gestures or symbols. Mead stressed the importance of significant symbols that arouse in the individual a response similar to that aroused in the other persons or persons with whom he or she is interacting. Mead maintained that this is a uniquely human phenomenon. Mead distinguished between sign and symbols by suggesting that signs always elicit a given response. Symbols, on the other hand, do not elicit a particular response but must, instead, be interpreted by those engaged in symbolic exchange. Human behavior involves the prediction of response; before using a symbol a person can predict the probable response of other persons. Human beings respond to one another on the basis of the intentions or meanings of gestures. This renders the gesture symbolic, i.e., the gesture becomes a symbol to be interpreted. It becomes something which in the imaginations of the participants, stands for the entire act.

Mead's analysis of symbolic interaction is highly important. He sees it as a presentation of gestures and a response to the meaning of those gestures. A gesture is any part or aspect of an ongoing action that signifies the larger act of which it is a part. Such things as requests, orders, commands cues, and declaration are gestures that convey to the person who recognizes them an idea of the intention and plan of forthcoming action of the individual who presents them. The person who responds organizes his response on the basis of what the gestures mean to him; the person who presents the gestures advances them as indication or signs of what he is planning to do as well as of what he wants the respondent to do or understand. Thus, the gesture has meaning for both the person who makes it and for the person to whom it is directed.

Social action is then seen as symbolic behavior, and interaction is based on shared symbolic meanings. These meanings are learned during the process of socialization, a process to which Mead devoted considerable attention. It is through socialization that he explained the development of the self and the integration of the individual into society. In the process of socialization the individual learns the arbitrary meaning of significant symbols (language). He or she also learns the symbolic evaluations placed on certain conduct and the appropriateness of certain kinds of behavior in certain roles. In time this expectation of the

response of others becomes abstracted from those of the specific individuals from whom it was derived; it is then organized into a system of normative standards referred to by Mead as the generalized other.

Mead distinguished two analytical aspects of self: the "me" and the "I". The "me" of any one moment of time is the situational manifestation of the generalized other, that is, of the organized sets of community standards internalized by the individual. The "me" includes the norms, values, definitions, and meanings that have been internalized by the individual from his or her social group and brought to bear in determining correct conduct in a given situation. Although the "me" varies from situation to situation, nevertheless over a period of time the observer can detect normative consistencies that reveal the organized self as having a certain stability. From the societal point of view the "me" is the mechanism of conformity and social control within the individual. The "I", on the other hand, is the spontaneous aspect of the self. It is unpredictable and gives a uniquely individual response to the situation and the "me". Each person is to some extent different from every other person, varying not only in biological make-up but in experience that is never exactly the same. Norms and meanings then become variously interpreted as they are internalized. These uniquely individual elements, unorganized and unpredictable, provide the basis for the "I's" impulisive and individualistic reaction to the situation.

Mead's more specific contributions are listed in this report:

(1) He contributed to the increasing acceptance of the view that human conduct is carried on primarily by the defining of situations in which one acts; that is, the view that distinctively human behavior is behavior in terms of what situations symbolize. This is the essence of the symbolic interactionist viewpoint.

(2) He delineated the way in which language serves as a mechanism for the appearance of mind and self.

(3) His concept of the self explains how the development, or socialization, of the human being both enmeshes the individual in society and frees him from society. For the individual with a self is not passive, but can employ his self in an interaction which may result in selections divergent from group defintions.

(4) An extremely provacative conception of the nature of the human mind is provided by him: he views mind, or the mental, as an importation within the individual of the social process, i.e., of the process of social interaction.

(5) His concept of the act points out the tendency for individuals to construct their behavior in the course of activity and thus, to carve out their objects, their environments. What this means is that human beings are not, passive puppets who respond mechanically to stimuli. They are, rather, active participants in a highly organized society, and what they perceive is functional in their ongoing activity.

(6) He described how the members of a human group develop and form a common world, i.e., common objects, common understandings and expectations.

Despite such contributions Mead has not escaped criticism, particularly on the ground that his concepts are vague and not really subject to empirical verification.

During the major portion of the past generation, two leading progenitors of the symbolic interactionist perspective have been H. G. Blumer and the late M. H. Kuhn. Blumer has elaborated the best known variety of interactionism--an approach called the Chicago school. This approach continues the classical, Meadian tradition. The Iowa school developed through the work of Kahn. The two schools differ in important substantive and methodological matters. We find here, as in various disciplines studying human behavior, the opposition between humanistic and scientific viewpoints. Blumer argues the case for a distinctive methodology in the study of such behavior, while Kuhn stresses the unity of method in all scientific disciplines. Thus, while Blumer strives simply to make modern society intelligible, Kuhn seeks universal predictions of social conduct. Three intertwined topics represent the basic specifics of this methodological divergence: (1) the relative merits of phenomenological and operational approaches; (2) the appropriate techniques of observation; and (3) the nature of the concepts best suited for the analysis of human behavior.

Although both Blumer and Kuhn claim to be interested in what goes on inside the head of humans, their approaches to this subject matter differ significantly. Blumer's advocacy of a special methodology lays heavy stress upon the need for insightfully feeling one's way inside the experience of the actor. The student of human conduct, he contends, must get inside the actor's world and must see the world as the actor sees it, for the actor's behavior takes place on the basis of his/her own particular meanings.

The most significant contribution of the Iowa research is the demonstration that the key ideas of symbolic interactionism could be operationalized and utilized successfully in empirical research. Kuhn refers to self theory as an effort to develop a set of generalizations tested by empirical research. His writings repeatedly sounded the call for the operational definition of concepts, for methods that would meet the usual scientific criteria and for a standarized, objective, and dependable process of measurement of significant variables.

In light of Blumer's insistence upon sympathetic introspection, it is entirely expectable that he advocates the use of such observational techniques as life histories, autobiographies, case studies, diaries, letters, interviews, and most importantly, participant observation. Only through intimate association with those who are being studied, he maintains, can the investigator enter their inner worlds. His basic criticism of the experimental, instrumental, and quantitative methodology, in the form of questionnaires, schedules, tests, laboratory procedures, and detached observation from the outside, is that they completely fail to catch the meanings that crucially mediate, and determine how individuals respond to objects and situations.

Contemporary symbolic interactionism comprehends several diverse schools of thought. Their number and character vary according to differing conceptions of the central ideas that constitute the general orientation. These offshoots of interactionism are held to have stemmed from the essential ambiguities and contradictions in the Meadian statement of general theory, particulary with regard to the issue of determinancy

and indeterminancy in human conduct. And finally, Wharshay identifies the following varieties:[4]

(1) the Blumer school, emphasizing the more subjective aspects
(2) the Iowa school, stressing self-theory and a positivistic methodology
(3) an emphasis on the interaction with de-emphasis on language
(4) a role-theory view with a cognitive emphasis within a moderate scientific tradition
(5) the dramaturgical school, featuring the intricacies of role and self manipulation
(6) a field-theory version combining Mead, Lewin, and Lundberg
(7) an existential brand
(8) ethnomethodology; stressing the complexity and fluidity of the web of social life with a humanist-participatory methodology

In summary, we can say that, as varieties of symbolic interactionism, all of these orientations share the substative view that human beings construct their realities in a process of interaction with other human beings.

Footnotes

[1]Jerome G. Manis and Bernard N. Meltzer, Symbolic Interaction, (Boston, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1972), p. xi.

[2]Bernard N. Meltzer, John W. Petras, and Larry T. Reynolds, Symbolic Interactionism, (London and Boston, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1975), p. 84-85.

[3]Stephen Littlejohn, "Symbolic Interactionism as an Approach to the Study of Human Communication, Quarterly Journal of Speech, 68(1977), p.86.

[4]Bernard N. Meltzer, John W. Petras, and Larry T. Reynolds, Symbolic Interactionism, (London and Boston, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1975), p. 54

Experiments in Communication

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Self Disclosure and Trust: A Replication of an Experiment

Linus H. Brandt

People are interested in developing and improving their interpersonal relationships with other people.[1] Through these relationships with other human beings a person's interpersonal needs can be satisfied.[2] There are a number of factors which contribute to improved interpersonal relationships.[3] One of these factors is interpersonal trust. The question of how can interpersonal trust be developed may be answered via an understanding of the dynamics of interpersonal trust. Approximately half dozen years ago David W. Johnson and an associate M. Patricia Noonan completed an experiment which studied a certain facet of interpersonal trust.[4] They were looking at the effect which the variables of acceptance or rejection and reciprocation or non-reciprocation of self disclosure has on interpersonal trust.[5] The present paper deals with a replication of the Johnson and Noonan experiment. The reason for replication of that study was to verify the procedures and results of Johnson and Noonan.

Self disclosure is an integral component of interpersonal trust. There are a number of factors which influence self disclosing behavior in human beings. In an interpersonal relationship the factors of acceptance and rejection have a bearing on self disclosure.[6] Taylor, Altman, and Sorrentino have found that acceptance type behavior tends to breed more intimate disclosures and increases the duration of the self disclosures.[7] Worthy, Gary, and Kahn have discovered that intimate disclosures about one's self tend to produce reciprocal intimate disclosures in others.[8] Jourard has also found that self disclosing behavior is usually reciprocal in human relationships.[9] Heller, Davis, and Myers discovered that friendliness and hostility of an interviewer in a standard interview situation did influence the behavior of the subjects being interviewed.[10] In a similar study Reece and Whitman found that "warm" or "cold" type reinforcement by an experimenter influenced the communication behavior of his subjects.[11] Chittick and Himelstein found that their subjects' self disclosing behavior could be manipulated according to their confederates behavior during the experiment.[12]

The experiment replicated dealt with two research questions which were derived from literature cited above: (1) will the subjects trust a second person more who responds with acceptance to their self disclosures rather than the person who responds with rejection to the self disclosure? (2) will the subjects trust a second person more who responds with self disclosures rather than the person who does not respond with self disclosure?

In the experiment the variables of acceptance or rejection of self disclosure by the subjects were mixed with the variables of reciprocation and non-reciprocation of self disclosure by the confederates. Thus, four treatments were developed: (1) acceptance of self disclosure and reciprocated self disclosure; (2) rejection of self disclosure and reciprocated self disclosure; (3) acceptance of self disclosure and non-reciprocated self disclosure; and (4) rejection of self disclosure and non-reciprocated self disclosure.

Methods

Confederates and subjects for the experiment were acquired from a basic public speaking class. The four confederates, two males and two females, chosen by the instructor of the class from the criteria suggested by experimenter. The criteria were that the confederates were to have: (1) the ability to play the roles given them; and (2) the time to participate in the experiment. The subject volunteers were drawn from the remaining portion of the class. Eight subjects participated in the experiment.

The training of the confederates consisted of three stages: (1) the confederates were each given two prepared scripts to memorize one in favor of abortion and one against; (2) the confederates were trained to express one of the treatments; and (3) the confederates were given a combination review and question answering session just prior to the experiment.

Training for the expression of the acceptance variable consisted of a verbal and a nonverbal modes. The verbal mode consisted of making statements like: "I see how you feel," "Interesting point," and "I understand how you feel but I don't agree with you." The nonverbal consisted of giving good eye contact, smiling, leaning toward the subject and so forth. The expression of rejection consisted of a verbal and a nonverbal mode. The verbal mode consisted of making statements like: "you've got to be kidding," "that's stupid," and "how could anyone believe that." The nonverbal mode consisted of poor eye contact, acting bored, drumming of the fingers on the desk, and so forth.

The research procedures followed a three phase sequence. Phase one consisted of the following steps. First, a set of four subjects were given a preexperimental opinion questionnaire to determine their respective opinions on the legalization of abortion in the United States. The subjects were then escorted to the experiment area where they were randomly assigned an office. The offices consisted of a small room with two desks and two chairs. Second, the confederates were informed of the subjects opinion on the abortion issue. The confederates would then take a role which reflected agreement with the subjects opinion during phase one. Third, the experimenter gave each subject confederate group an introduction to the experiment. The introduction consisted of asking each person to develop a policy statement on the abortion issue which was to be presented orally to a person with an opposing opinion. The experimenter went on to say, "the research in which you are participating studies two types of behavior: (1) the effect of self disclosure on the discussion of policy statements; and (2) the behavior of the group representatives during a discussion with an opposing representative from a second group. The research session is divided into three phases which are described in the instruction sheet."[13] Fourth, the instruction sheet and the briefing sheet which outlined several stock arguments were given to each group. Fifth, the experimenter returned to each group in approximately five minutes to check on the progress of the group and answer any question that might have been raised. Phase one instructions were carried out by each group.

Phase two of the research procedures consisted of the following steps. First, the confederates were removed from their original offices and randomly assigned to a second office. At this time the confederates changed roles to play the representative of the second group with an opposing opinion on the abortion issue. It is during this phase that the subjects were subjected to one of the four treatments mentioned earlier in the paper. Second, the experimenter escorted the confederates to their second office. The subjects were requested to present his/her statement of policy first. Then the confederate was to follow with his/her policy statement or script. Next, the subjects and confederates were to discuss the issue for approximately ten minutes.

Phase three consisted of the following steps. First, after the discussion the confederates were removed from their second office. Second, the subjects were each given a post-experimental opinion questionnaire and a post-experimental attitude scale. Third, the experimenter picked up the questionnaire and the attitude scales from the confederates. Fifth, the subjects were brought together for a debriefing session with the experimenter during which he explained the real purpose of the experiment, revealed the use of confederates and answered any question. Subjects were asked to leave the experiment area and not to discuss the experiment with any future subjects.

Results

The post-experimental questionnaire consisted of five questions which dealt with trust self disclosure. A seven item Likert-type scale was incorporated to measure the subjects attitudes in relationship to the confederates behavior. For example: to what extent do you trust the representative from the other group? Great Deal 1-2-3-4-5-6-7 Very Little. Means were computed for each of the four experimental treatments

TABLE 1
Means for Treatments of Acceptance or Rejection and Reciprocation or Non-reciprocation of Subjects Self Disclosures

	Treatment			
	Self Disclosure		Non-self Disclosure	
	Acceptance	Rejection	Acceptance	Rejection
Trust for Others	2.5	2.5	2.0	4.0
Similar as a Person	4.5	3.5	5.0	4.0
Similar in Beliefs and Values	4.5	4.5	6.0	4.0
Liking for Others	1.5	1.0	3.5	4.0
Influenced by Others	3.0	7.0	2.0	5.5

Table 1 reveals that the rejection and non-self disclosure treatment engender the least amount of trust for all four of the treatments. The other three treatments were similar in their mean scores. The table shows that all four of the treatments scored approximately the same for perceived similarity between individuals. Table 1 indicates that the rejection and self disclosure treatment and the acceptance and self disclosure treatment produced a higher degree of liking than the remaining two treatments. The table also reveals that the acceptance and self disclosure treatment rated higher on influence than the other three treatments. Table 1 indicates that the acceptance and non-self disclosure treatment had the lowest mean score among the four treatments in relation to similarities in values and beliefs between individuals.

The above data tends to indicate that the factor of trust plays an important role in facilitating cooperative interaction and effective interpersonal relationships. The data tends to imply that self disclosure and acceptance are needed for healthy interpersonal relationships to exist.

Explanation

In the experiment the two factors of acceptance or rejection and reciprocated self disclosure or non-reciprocated self disclosure were manipulated and analyzed to determine their influence on development of interpersonal trust. The research was aimed at answering two questions: (1) will a subject trust a second person more who responds to the subject's self disclosures in an accepting manner rather than the person who responds in a rejecting manner? (2) will a subject trust a second person more who responds with self disclosures rather than the person who does not self disclose? The results indicates that both questions were answered affirmatively. The latter question seems to have received a little more support than the first.

The experiment would seem to indicate that self disclosure and acceptance contribute to the development of interpersonal trusts in interpersonal relationships. If the above statement is true then the experiment would suggest that an accepting manner and appropriate self disclosure would be instrumental factors in developing a desirable climate for cooperation.

This experiment tends to verify the original finds of Johnson and Noonan but with less strength than their findings which may be due in part to the smaller number of subjects used in the replication of the original experiment.

Notes

[1]William W. Wilmot, Dyadic Communication: A Transactional Perspective (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1975), pp. 143-159.

[2]Kim Giffin and Bobby R. Patton, Fundamentals of Interpersonal Communication, (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1971), pp. 203-204.

[3]Wilmot, loc. cit.

[4]David W. Johnson and M. Patrica Noonan, "Effects of Acceptance and Reciprocation of Self-Disclosures on the Development of Trust," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 19, No. 5 (1972), 411-416.

[5]Ibid.

[6]Carl R. Rogers, On Becoming a Person: A Therapist's View of Psychotherapy, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961), p. 174.

[7]Dalmas A. Taylor, Irwin Altman, and Richard Sorrentino, "Interpersonal Exchange as a Function of Reward and Costs and Situational Factors: Expectancy Confirmation-Disconfirmation", Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 5(1969), 324-339.

[8]Morgan Worthy, Albert L. Gary, and Gay M. Kahn, "Self Disclosure as an Exchange Process," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 13, No. 1 (1969), 59-63.

[9]Sidney M. Jourard, "Self-Disclosure and Other-Cathexis," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 59 (1959), 428-433.

[10]Kenneth Heller, John D. Davis, and Roger A. Myers, "The Effects of Interviewer Style in a Standard Interview," Journal of Consulting Psychology, 30, No. 6 (1966), 501-508.

[11]Michael M. Reece and Robert N. Whitman, "Expressive Movements, Warmth, and Verbal Reinforcement," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 64, (1962), 234-236.

[12]Eldon V. Chittick and Philip Himelstein, "The Manipulation of Self Disclosure," The Journal of Psychology, 65, (1967), 117-121.

[13]R. Wayne Pace, Brent D. Peterson, and Robert R. Boren, Communication Experiments: A Manual for Conducting Experiments (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1975), p. 33.

Attitude Change As A Condition of Emotional Appeals

Jeannette McDaniel

The purpose of this paper is to report the methodology and results of a communication experiment to measure attitude change in relation to emotional appeal. The first portion of the paper will present the proposition and research questions, and materials and procedure used. The second portion will present a summary of the experiment including results and validity factors. Throughout the paper the term attitude will be used rather than shifting to the terms "opinion," "beliefs," and "values." As McGuire indicated in "Persuasion, Resistance and Attitude Change," distinctions have been made among the terms, but there is no universally accepted distinction and the terms are considered interchangeable.[1] Throughout the paper the term student will consistently be used to indicate participant and subject.

The proposition was "Messages that employ emotional appeals are sometimes more effective than messages that employ arguments." Two research questions were posed: (1) By using evidence, does a speaker convince his or her audience of the validity of a proposition?, and (2) Does giving the source of evidence produce changes in attitudes? In order to test the proposition and answer the questions, a research method was developed. There were twenty-six high school students used for the testing. The materials used included two copies of an Opinion Ballot for each student; one for pre-test and one for posttest. There were two tape recorded speeches about education. Speech A contained carefully documented evidence, and Speech B employed only rational arguments and contained no referral to source.

The procedures used were:

1. Selection of students:
   a. Arrangements were made with instructors to use student's time for the project.
   b. Two weeks prior to the experiment, the Opinion Ballot (pre-test) was given to all students.
   c. Arrangements were made for the exact date and time for the presentation of speeches.
2. Conducting the Experiment:
   a. A tape recorder equipped with Speech A was set up at the specified time.
   b. Explanation was made to Group A, thirteen students, that they would be listening to a recorded speech after which they would be asked to complete an Opinion Ballot.
   c. The speech was played.
   d. Students filled out the Opinion Ballot (posttest).
   e. Ballots were collected.
   f. The same procedure was followed with Group B using the no-evidence Speech B.
3. Tabulation of Data:
   a. Totals were acquired for numbers marked on each of the twenty-two questions for the pre-test and that total was recorded on the Tabulation Chart. (Appendix I A and Appendix I B.)

b. Totals were acquired for numbers marked on each of the twenty-two questions for the posttest and that total was recorded on the Tabulation Chart.
c. The difference between each student's pre and posttest scores was determined and recorded on the Tabulation Chart.

When presenting the pre-test the following directions were given to all students at the same time.

> This is a survey being taken for a graduate college class and your help is needed. You will not be allowed to ask any questions in relation to the statements on the Opinion Ballot so listen carefully to the directions. Do not put your name on the sheet, but do put your first and last initials. Then read each statement carefully and mark the way you feel about each statement. A mark over the number one indicates that you really agree with the statement and a mark over the number seven means you really disagree with the statement. A mark over the number four means that you are pretty neutral or you don't really agree but yet you don't really disagree. That means that a mark over numbers two and three indicates that you kind-of disagree. Remember that this is being done for a college class and not by our school so the school won't hold anything against you for the way you respond to each of the statements. In fact, your names will never be used so no one is going to judge you by your answer, but it is important that you take your time and think about each statement.

In order to understand the simplistic wording of the directions one must be familiar with the students. Both groups were students retaking a subject during summer school. Group A consisted of eleven boys and two girls of whom five will be sophomores, two juniors, and six seniors. Their average I. Q. is 100.1, ranging from 82 to 115, and their average grade point for the past school year was 2.2 on a 4 point scale. Group B consisted of eight boys and five girls of whom eight will be sophomores and five seniors. Their average I. Q. is 98, ranging from 80 to 120, and their grade point average was 2.0.

The Opinion Ballot for the pre- and posttest were administered by an assistant to the experimenter. The precedure, as well as the wording of the directions, was followed in an attempt to eliminate experimenter and "apprehension manipulation" variables.[2] Both speeches were recorded by a former debater whose voice the students would not recognize, and the speeches were delivered in quality "contest oratorical style."

In order to better understand the Tabulation Charts one must understand the composition of the Opinion Ballot. It is structured in such a manner that nine statements are positively stated about the federal control of education, four are negatively stated about the federal, seven are positively stated about local control of education, and two are negatively stated about the local. If we assume that an agreement with a negative statement is a "vote of confidence" for the opposition then we can assume that there are eleven statements supporting the federal control of education and eleven statements supporting the local control of education. It must be pointed out that by making this assumption we are

ruling out the possibility of the acceptance of any other agent having any form of control of education and are creating an external validity factor which is not compensated for in this testing process.[3] Once this is understood then one must realize that the lower the total marking, for either group of statements, on the Opinion Ballot the more the agreement, while the higher the marking the more disagreement.

When considering the Tabulation Charts one sees that Group A shifted an average of 6.8 points in favor of the federal government from pre- to posttest while Group B shifted an average of 11 points toward the federal government. Group A shifted 10.5 points away from support of the local control from pre- to posttest while Group B only shifted 9.4 points away from support of the local control. Neither of those shifts are significant enough to demonstrate the persuasive power of either speech over the other. This would tend to be in keeping with Dresser's statement that evidence makes little difference to a listener.[4]

The set of numbers of "subject 10" on Tabulation Chart A deserves special attention. You will notice that on the pre-test 10 had a very low score favoring the federal government control and almost neutral feelings about the local control, but on the posttest he had a negative reaction to the persuasion of the speech. His rankings changed drastically. The experimenter questioned the student and his answer was: "I don't like to see people put down. That speech made it sound like the school board people were dummies 'cause they weren't as educated as the big shots in government."

Even with an awareness of the lack of difference in attitude change, it is still important to view aspects of the experiment in relation to the students and experiment situation. Upon completion of the posttest Group A students asked questions like: "Are they gonna get rid of the school board?"; "is this one of those government surveys?"; and "Things would sure be better off it the government would get out, wouldn't they?". These questions are good indications that they "heard" what was contained in the speech. Group B asked questions like: "Do we hafta do any more of these ?!?!?! things?"; and "What's the point of this junk?". These questions indicate distinct apathy. The student's questions give an insight to the validity of each groups' results. William Dresser indicated that a listener may view the material as unimportant and because of that, evidence or lack of evidence will make little difference.[5] Existing beliefs such as the students' general dislike of education or bias, acquired from parents or friends, against the federal government would also have significance on the effects of the evidence.[6] An attempt was made by the experimenter to correlate intelligence with attitude change but no trends could be established.[7]

Many elements in the experiment situation as well as in each student contributed to problems of acquiring accurate results but as Webb and Campbell stated ". . . no experiment . . . will unequivocally demonstrate truth."[8] Cathcart's statement about evidence as a persuasive is one that sums the results of experimentation using these students. "Audience response to a variable such as evidence and the way that evidence is used in a speech has very little to do with the sex, educational level, speech training, or the subject matter knowledge of the auditors. Rather, the response seems to be a function of the original opinion of the auditor, his propess to shift, and the acceptability of the evidence and argument presented.[9]

Appendix I A

Group A

	Pre-test		Posttest		Difference		
Subject	Favor Gov.	Favor Local	Favor Gov.	Favor Local	Favor Gov.	Favor Local	
1	40	57	38	66	2	9	
2	37	57	32	61	5	4	
3	32	57	27	54	5	3 ↓	
4	27	60	27	71	0	11	
5	54	38	42	31	12	7 ↓	
6	36	53	25	55	12	2	
7	51	17	22	60	29	49	
8	50	50	35	68	15	18	
9	32	35	19	49	13	14	
10	22	49	73	16	51 ↑	33 ↓	
11	39	60	33	59	3	1 ↓	
12	66	29	40	62	26	33	
13	63	22	48	51	15	28	
	I	II	III	IV	137	168	TOTAL

11 equals strongest possible agreement
77 equals strongest possible disagreement
44 equals totally neutral
↑↓ equals inverted shift away from persuasion of speech

I--Pre-test equals an average marking of 42.2
III--Posttest equals an average marking of 35.4

II--Pre-test equals an average marking of 43.5
IV--Posttest equals an average marking of 54

Appendix I B

Group B

	Pre-test		Posttest		Difference		
Subject	Favor Gov.	Favor Local	Favor Gov.	Favor Local	Favor Gov.	Favor Local	
1	32	48	17	63	15	15	
2	21	62	18	64	3	2	
3	47	38	45	47	2	9	
4	32	58	30	56	2	2 ↓	
5	65	15	20	51	45	37	
6	49	36	41	54	8	18	
7	48	43	40	40	8	3 ↓	
8	52	38	32	56	10	18	
9	39	58	37	51	2	7 ↓	
10	40	52	38	59	2	7	
11	61	27	58	28	3	1	
12	48	38	31	47	17	16	
13	51	29	25	52	26	27	
	I	II	III	IV	143	148	TOTAL

11 equals strongest possible agreement
77 equals strongest possible disagreement
44 equals totally neutral
↑↓ equals inverted shift away from persuasion of speech

I--Pre-test equals an average marking of 45
III--Posttest equals an average marking of 34

II--Pre-test equals an average marking of 40.9
IV--Posttest equals an average marking of 51.4

FOOTNOTES

[1]William J. McGuire, "Persuasion, Resistance and Attitude Change," in Handbook of Communication, Ithiel de Sola Pool, et. al., eds., (Chicago, Rand McNally College Publishing Co., 1973), p. 942.

[2]Jonathan C. Finkelstein, "Nonverbal Communication Experimenter Expectancy Effects," Journal of Communication, 26 (Summer, 1976), 32-34.

[3]Eugene J. Webb and Donald T. Campbell, "Experiments on Communication Effects," in Handbook of Communication, Ithiel de Sola Pool, et. al., eds., (Chicago, Rand McNally College Publishing Co., 1973), p. 942.

[4]William R. Dresser, "The Impact of Evidence on Decision Making," Journal of American Forensic Association, 3 (May, 1966), 44.

[5]Ibid.

[6]Ibid.

[7]McGuire, op, cit., p. 220.

[8]Webb and Campbell, op. cit., p. 938.

[9]Robert S. Cathcart, "An Experimental Study of the Relative Effectiveness of Four Methods of Presenting Evidence," Speech Monagraphs, 22 (August, 1955), 232-233.

Conformity: An Experiment

John O. Phipps-Winfrey

> On the individual level the delicate balance reveals itself through conversion. An individual who "converts" from one orientation to its exact opposite appears to himself and others to have made a gross change, but actually it involves only a small shift in a focal and persistent conflict. Just as only one per cent of the voting population is needed to reverse the results of an American election, so only one per cent of an individual's "consituencies" need shift in order to transform him from voluptuary to ascetic, from policeman to criminal, from Communist to anti-communist, or whatever.
>
> Philip Slater[1]

The dialectics of conversion, conformity, influence, or persuasion has been the basis of rhetorical theory since the Sophistic beginnings of Speech Communication. Throughout the history of this field the induction of conversion and conformity has been the topic of observation, testing, and explaination by educators, theorists, and researchers. This particular examination of conformity deals with the small peer group environment and its influence on its membership. Furthermore, this experimentation deals not only with the causal quality but also causal quantity which is shown in a progressive inducement of conflict between personal belief and group expectation.

Proposition

The small group influence the behavior of its members. The influences of the group, in most instances, will compel the group member to conform to his or her perception of the group norm. Although this conformity may not be complete, it is probable that the group member will change his or her stated opinions in the direction of the supposed group norm. Also, because of the psychological likenesses of peer group members, the instance of conformity should itself conform to a point in time which is relateable to the quantity of perceived group/group member conflict necessary for conversion or conformity.

Subjects

Members of this experiment were selected by linear invitation. That is, one person was invited to participate in the experimentation and then requested to invite a friend to participate. Forty-eight subjects were included in this experiment.

Procedures

The forty-eight subjects were divided into four groups of twelve members each. Each group was then located so that the groups themselves could not interact nor hear the interaction of any other group.

2. Each group was given a copy of "The Case of Johnny Sandron" and asked to read it without discussion.

3. Immediately after reading the information each member was asked to record their opinion about this case on an Opinion Scale.

4. The Opinion Scales were then collected, and without tally, it was reported to each group that most of the group members though that:
1. ...blame for Johnny's crime must be place entirely upon his shoulders.

5. Groups 1 and 4 were told that they would have a chance to "reorganize their groups if there were any members which did not "fit in". (In the organization of tabulation these two groups were to be labeled the "rejection" groups. Groups 2 and 3 will, in tabulation, be labeled the "nonrejection" groups.)

6. The Opinion Scale was again administered.

7. Groups 2 and 4 were told that they needed to write a short report on the case, and that the report would be passed around to the members of the other groups and to the members of their own group. (In the organization of tabulation, groups 2 and 4 were labeled the "public" groups.

8. After the group members of the "public"groups Wrote their reports, the Opinion Scale was again administered.

9. A post-experimental questionnaire was then administered.

Tabulation

1. Scores for the Opinion Scale were then tabulated.

Group 1 (Private/rejection)				Group 3 (Private/nonrejection)			
	Scale Position				Scale Position		
Subject	Adm. 1	Adm. 2	Adm. 3	Subject	Adm. 1	Adm. 2	Adm. 3
1	6	1	1	25	5	5	5
2	4	2	2	26	4	3	3
3	5	2	1	27	5	4	4
4	4	3	1	28	6	6	6
5	5	2	2	29	4	2	1
6	7	2	2	30	5	3	1
7	5	4	3	31	3	3	3
8	3	1	1	32	7	7	7
9	5	4	2	33	4	4	3
10	2	1	1	34	6	6	6
11	6	3	2	35	5	2	2
12	6	2	2	36	5	5	5

Group 2 (Public/nonrejection)				Group 4 (Public/rejection)			
	Scale Position				Scale Position		
Subject	Adm. 1	Adm. 2	Adm. 3	Subject	Adm. 1	Adm. 2	Adm. 3
13	5	4	4	37	6	6	6
14	7	7	7	38	5	1	1
15	5	5	5	39	4	3	2
16	5	2	2	40	2	1	1
17	3	1	1	41	3	3	1
18	4	2	2	42	3	2	2
19	4	4	4	43	2	2	2
20	6	5	5	44	5	1	1
21	5	2	2	45	4	3	1
22	4	3	3	46	5	4	1
23	1	1	1	47	5	5	5
24	5	4	4	48	4	2	2

b. All subjects who initially occupied positions 5, 6, or 7 were called "deviates". All subjects who initially occupied positions 1, 2, 3, or 4 were called "modes". The number of deviates and modes in each group were then determined.

Distribution of Subjects in

Experimental Conditions

	Public (2&4)		Private (1&3)	
	Modes	Deviates	Modes	Deviates
Rejection (1&4)	7	5	4	8
Nonrejection (2&3)	5	7	4	8

Tallies were made of the number of subjects that indicated on their Post-experimental Questionnaire that they felt that their opinions would affect the degree to which they might be rejected by the group.

Likelihood of Rejection

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Public Deviates	0	0	0	3	3	3	3
Public Modes	0	1	1	0	5	6	2
Private Deviates	0	0	0	5	2	6	3
Private Modes	0	0	0	1	2	2	0

Tallies were made of the number of subjects who indicated on the Post-experimental Questionnaire that they felt that their opinions differed at first with that of the group.

First Opinion Differed from Group

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Public Deviates	0	0	0	3	8	0	0
Public Modes	0	1	0	10	2	0	0
Private Deviates	0	0	0	7	4	0	1
Private Modes	0	0	1	10	1	0	0

Tallies were made of the number of deviates who changed opinions toward the group norm.

	Public	Private	Combined
Rejection	3	8	11
Nonrejection	5	3	8
Combined	8	11	19

Tallies were made of the number of modes and deviates who changed their opinion, either toward or away from the group norm.

	Initial Position	Changed Toward 1	Did Not Change	Changed Toward 7
Modes	20	14	4	0
Deviates	28	21	9	0

Tallies were made of the number of deviates changing 1, 2, 3, and 4 steps toward Position 2 (the norm) on the scale.

	Number of Positions Changed			
Initial Position	1	2	3	4
5	3	1	10	0
6	1	0	0	3
7	0	0	0	0

Tallies were made of the number of individual descriptions that were consistent with Position 2 (the norm) on the scale. These were separated into groups, indicating those that moved after writing the descriptions. (Position 2 on the Opinion Scale read: Though Johnny may have been slightly influenced by the harmful conditions under which he lived, there were also many helpful factors to counterbalance them. He did not take advantage of these. Considering this, it seems that by far the greatest part of the blame still rest on his shoulders.)

Number of Deviates Changing Opinions While Writing Descriptions

	Position Before Change			
	1	2	3	4
Public	0	0	0	0
Private	0	0	1	1

Experimental Analysis

The small group does influence the behavior of its members, in this experimentation seventy-five per cent of the subjects changed their opinions on the Opinion Scale toward a more conformable position to the fraudulently stated group norms. Those members of group 1, the private/rejection group, conformed most completely and the private/nonrejection, group 3, which was the least conforming still revealed a fifty per cent change toward the perceived group norm.

The peer-grouping does affect the instance of conformity, of the seventy-five per cent of the group members that changed their opinions on the Opinion Scale ninety-six per cent changed their positions after the fraudulent group norm was established and the members of groups 1 and 4 were told that they could "reorganize their groups".

Footnotes

[1]Philip Slater, "I Only Work Here," The Pursuit of Loneliness, (Boston, Beacon Press, 1971), p. 4

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Communication Patterns in Small Groups
Carla Deckert

One of the first published articles specifically dealing with group structure was written by Professor Alex Bavelas. His article dealt with a mathematical model for group structure.[1] Another article written by Bavelas identified research being carried out dealing with small group structures. This research was being done by Sidney Smith of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Smith used two different structures (Fig. 1, Appendix 1), A and B with 8 groups of college students asking them to find the common symbol which appeared on all five cards of each participant, in the shortest amount of time. Communication was by written messages passed through slots in a cubicle wall arranged to achieve the linkage pattern the experimenter desired. No restrictions were placed on the context of the messages and the card written on was coded in order to reconstruct later what communication occurred. The findings suggested the most central position was usually the leader (Fig.2) and the total errors averaged are shown in Figure 4 (Appendix 3).[2]

Research was also being carried out by Harold Leavitt which was published in 1951.[3] The purpose of his experiment was to investigate the relationship between the patterns of communication in a small group and the behavior of its members. These patterns are shown in Figure 1. The 100 male undergraduate subjects were asked to find the common element in the minimum amount of time with a minimum number of messages being considered. They also were required to write their communication and were separated into cubicles with only the slots open to the desired structural channel. The 20 five man groups were given 15 consecutive trials. The group errors are shown in Figure 5. Leavitt concluded that the time it took to arrive at the finding was inaccurate due to speed of writing, dexterity in passing and other similar factors. The results of the group moral are represented in Figure 6.

The organizational patterns in the different structures varied only between the open and closed patterns. In the wheel, the Y and the Chain all the group members gave their information to the central position for the decision-making process. The Circle tended to have no consistant organizational pattern. Bavelas concluded that the patterns highly centralized were organized more quickly, operated under stable conditions and had fewer errors. However, they did not seem to enjoy their group as much. The implication being that this could harm productivity if workers were asked to remain in the centralized structure over a period of time.[4]

Heise and Miller also conducted experiments similar to Leavitt's using 5 different types of communication networks and 3 different types of tasks. In the first task they were to reassemble a word list, the second dealt with sentence construction and the third required the group to form an anagram. The experimenters found that the most effective structure in terms of time and the number of words required to complete the task was the closed chain network in which all members talked to and listened to all others.[5] (Fig. 7) Arthur M. Cohen also did several experiments dealing with changing the network of small groups.[6] These were concerned with groups which met over an extended period of time and the relivance is limited in relation to the experiment being discussed.

Communication patterns through which information flow affects the efficiency of a small group. This experiment was designed to answer the questions concerning what effect a fixed communication pattern has upon a group's ability to solve problems. What is the effect of different fixed communication patterns in the amount of time it takes to solve a problem, on the number of interactions required to solve a problem and on the satisfaction members express at the end of a problem solving period?

In order to answer these questions 24 high school students were drawn from a summer class and asked to participate in a communication experiment. They were divided up into three groups of 5 people each, with one timekeeper for each group and two observers for each group. The desks were arranged into three network patterns (Fig. 8) which contained an 8½" X 11" sheet of paper with the letter A, B, C, D, or E printed on each. At the bottom of the sheet was the letter or letters of the person with whom they could communicate. Each participant was given a copy of the NASA Ranking Task (see Appendix 6) and each observer was given an Observer Recording Form (see Appendix 7). Only the observer and the timekeeper were picked by the experimenter, the other participants were free to select any group and desk. Once the subjects were seated, the observers and timekeepers were seated at the edge of each group, the procedures were explained to the participants. The experiments read and gave a copy of the following to each participant:

> This is a study of the way in which fixed communication patterns influence how groups complete tasks. Thus, you will be given a task to accomplish as a group. At the same time, you will be restricted in the ways you can communicate. That is, you will be limited in terms of who you can talk to as follows:
>
> Y: A may talk only to C
> B may talk only to C
> C may talk to A, B, or D
> D may talk to C and E
> E may talk only to D
>
> Chain: A may talk only to B
> B may talk to A and C
> C may talk to B and D
> D may talk to C and E
> E may talk only to D
>
> Comcon: Talk to anyone you wish in any order you like.

The timekeepers were asked to record the time from the time the group first begins to speak until it is finished with the task. Timekeepers were also asked to watch for violations and to gently make corrections to conform to the assignments. The observers were asked to take care in not disturbing the group interaction but merely chart who talks to whom and the number of times.

When the groups were finished each member was given a Group Member Satisfaction Scale to complete which contained a question concerning the group work, member satisfaction with position and member agreement with the final outcome. (Appendix 8). Data tabulation is contained in Appendix 9 and 10.

The results of this experiment seem to indicate that a fixed communication pattern increased the efficiency of a small group since both the Chain and Y group were able to come closer to the correct ranking than did the Comcon, which began with no fixed structure. As Webb and Campbell suggest, the unusual topic which made up the task could account for the low number of correct answers.[7] None of the members of the group were highly skilled in the scientific knowledge required to complete the rankings competently. This is the reason the experimenter charted up to 3 rank points on either side of the correct ranking.

Using the time factor as a basis, the fixed communication patterns did slightly better than did the open communication network, but this could be accounted for by the possibility that the Y group merely knew each other better, or felt more comfortable doing this experiment. The internal validity here could be due to the selection of the participants. Even though each participant was asked, all were members of a summer school class which was required because they had failed the preceeding year. Another important factor was that the experiment was conducted on a Friday following a test. This could also account for the time element since most of the students realized they would be free to leave following the experiment. A final factor which must be taken into account in relationship to not only time but also errors and how well they liked their positions is that the participants came from two private schools and many of the participants have expressed a feeling of rivalry between the schools.

The structured pattern of Y had the most efficient group as far as the number of interactions. The Chain group more than doubled the number of Y interactions yet the time of the two groups was very close, suggesting that perhaps more than one interaction was occuring in the Chain at the same moment. It is interesting to note that the Y group also had the lowest scores as far as individuals feelings on how well their group worked together, even though in terms of time, number of interactions and number of errors they seemed to be the most efficient.

It should be noted that there does seem to be the possibility that the Comcon did their final evaluations together since everyone had exactly the same number marked on all three questions. This also has an effect on the results of the experiment, since this group liked their positions and agreed with the group's rankings.

The most important ranking in regard to liking positions came from C in the Y group who had the central position yet disliked it. This seems to contradict Miraglia's conclusion that "the degree of centrality of a person's location in the communication network is positively related to the satisfaction he obtains from participating in the group."[8] This could be accounted for as a matter of personnel taste since he did agree with the final outcome of the group. Yet position C in the Chain, also a central position only moderately liked his position.

The results of this experiment are limited by the previously mentioned threats to its validity. The Y structure completed their task in the shortest amount of time, using the fewest interactions. However the members also indicated a certain amount of dissatisfaction with their position in the structure and with the final rankings of the group. Further research using different subjects and controlling for the internal and external validity threats should more completely answer the question of group efficiency as it relates to structure.

Footnotes

[1]A. B. Bavelas, "A Mathematical Model for Group Structures." Journal of Applied Anthropology, 1948, Vol. 9, pp. 16-30.

[2]A. A. Bavelas, "Communication Patterns in Task-oriented Groups." Journal of Acoustical Society of America, 1959, Vol. 22, pp. 725-730.

[3]Harold J. Leavitt, "Some Effects of Certain Communication Patterns on Group Performance," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1951, Vol. 46, pp. 38-50.

[4]Bavelas, p. 30.

[5]George A. Heise and George A. Miller, "Problem Solving by Small Groups Using Various Communication Nets," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1951, Vol. 46, pp. 327-335.

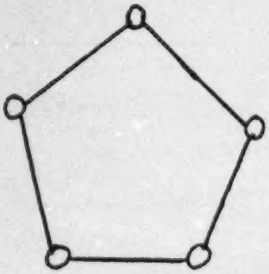
[6]Arthur M. Cohen "Changing Small Group Communication Networks," Journal of Communication, 19 , Vol. 11, pp. 116-128.

[7]Eugene J. Webb and Donald J. Campbell, "Experiences on Communication Effects," Handbook of Communication, 1973, pp. 940-942.

[8]Joseph F. Miraglia, "Communication Network Research and Group Discussion," Today's Speech, 1964, Vol. 12, pp. 11-14.

APPENDIX I

Figure 1



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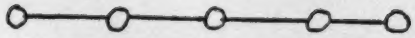

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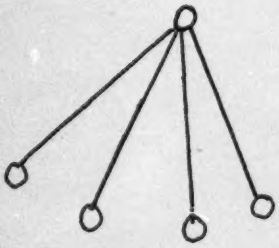

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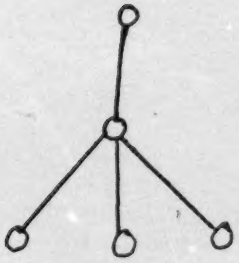

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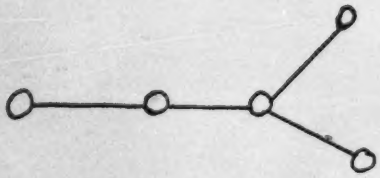

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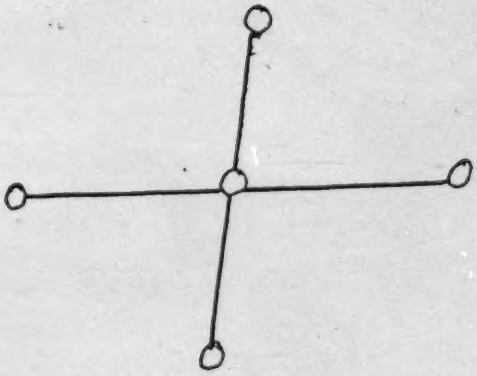

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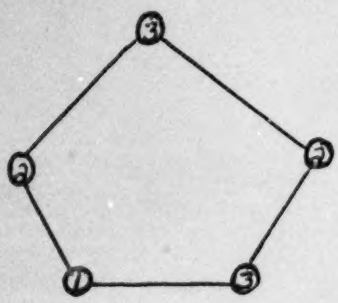
APPENDIX II

Figure 2 - Smith



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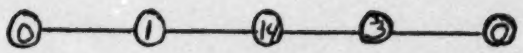

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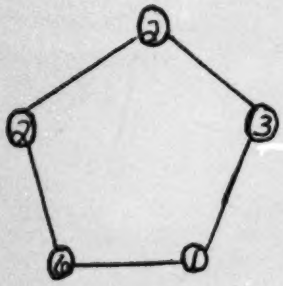
Figure 3 - Leavitt



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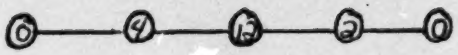

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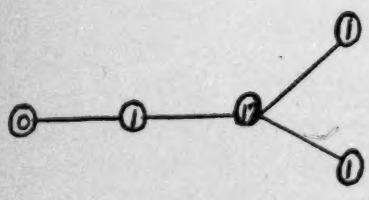

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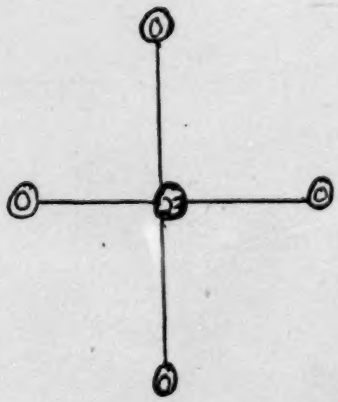

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APPENDIX III

Figure 4 Smith

Error Category	Pattern A	Pattern B
Average total errors	14.0	7.0
Average group errors	5.0	1.5

Figure 5 Leavitt

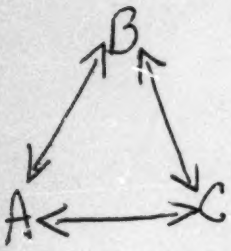
Error Category	Pattern A	B	E	F
Average total errors	17	10	3	10
Average group errors	3	2	1	1

Figure 6

	Average Rating by Position in Pattern	
	For the 35 in the most peripheral positions	For the 15 in the most central position
How much did you like your job?	3.2	8.8
How satisfied are you with the job done?	4.6	7.8

APPENDIX IV

Structures of Heise and Miller's Groups



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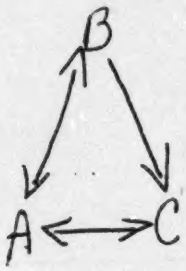

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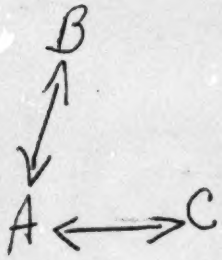

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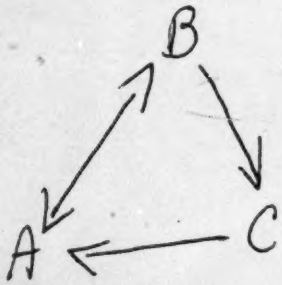

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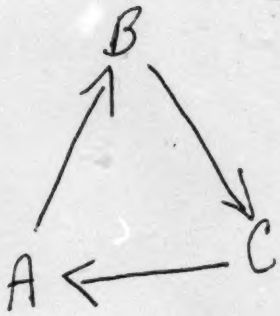

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APPENDIX V

Method of Arrangement for the Experiment

Chain:

A B C D E

Y:

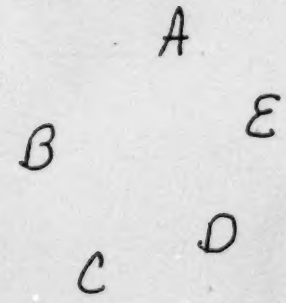
A B

C

D

E

Comcon:



APPENDIX VI

NASA Ranking Task

Instructions: You are a member of a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Because of mechanical difficulties, however, your ship was forced to land at a spot some 200 miles from the redezvous point. During landing, much of the equipment aboard was damages, and since survival depends on reaching the mother ship, the most critical items available must be chosen for the 200-mile trek. Below are listed the 15 items left intact and undamaged after landing. Your task is to rank order them in terms of their importance to your crew in allowing them to reach the rendezvous point. Place the number 1 by the most important item, number 2 by the second most important item, and so on, through number 15, the least important.

This is a group decision-making taks. Your group is to employ the method of group consensus in reaching its decision on the rankings. Since consensus is difficult to reach, try as a group to make each ranking one with which all group members can at least partially agree.

_____ Box of matches

_____ Food concentrate

_____ 50 feet of nylon rope

_____ Parachute silk

_____ Portable heating unit

_____ Two .45 calibre pistols

_____ One case of dehydrated Pet milk

_____ Two 100-lb. tanks of oxygen

_____ Stellar map of moon's constellation

_____ Life raft

_____ Magnetic compass

_____ 5 gallons of water

_____ Signal flares

_____ First aid kit containing injection needles

_____ Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter.

APPENDIX VII

OBSERVER'S TABULATION

Chain	Y	Comcon
A to B	A to C	A
B to A	B to C	B
B to C	C to A	C
C to B	C to B	D
C to D	C to D	E
D to C	D to C	
D to E	D to E	
E to D	E to D	

APPENDIX VIII

Group Member Satisfaction Scale

Place a checkmark along each scale that most nearly represnets your feelings.

1. How much did you like your position in the group?

Strongly Disliked ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Strongly Liked
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. How well did your group work together?

Very Poorly ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Very Well
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. To what extent did you agree with the final ranking of the group?

Not at all ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Completely
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX IX

DATA

Points difference between the key and the group rankings.

	Correct	Within 1	Within 2	Within 3
Chain:	3	3	5	0
Y:	3	2	4	2
Comcon:	2	1	4	2

The number of interactions by each group:

Chain:	205
Y:	72
Comcon:	84

The number of minutes each group took to complete the task:

Chain:	12 minutes
Y:	10 minutes
Comcon:	12 minutes

The number of messages sent by each member of the group:

	A	B	C	D	E
Chain:	32	49	50	48	26
Y:	16	15	13	24	4
Comcon:	17	16	31	15	5

Liked/Disliked Position

	A	B	C	D	E
Chain:	4	7	4	7	5
Y:	4	4	2	4	4
Comcon:	5	5	5	5	5

APPENDIX X

Group Work--Satisfaction

	A	B	C	D	E
Chain:	7	7	7	7	7
Y:	6	6	7	7	6
Comcon:	7	7	7	7	7

Agreed/Disagreed with Rankings

	A	B	C	D	E
Chain:	4	4	7	7	7
Y:	7	6	6	7	7
Comcon:	7	7	7	7	7